



LONDON : PRINTED BY
SPOTTISWOODE AND CO., NEW-STREET SQUARE
AND PARLIAMENT STREET

MAP OF THE PRINCIPAL
WINE DISTRICTS

OF EUROPE,
by
James L. Denman,
20, Piccadilly, London.
Entered at Stationers Hall.



WINE D
OF I
MAP OF THE

Entered at
30 Pies
James



45
stricts

Olive

Aleppo

Asia

Cyprus

Damas

Y

USAL

THE
VINE AND ITS FRUIT,

MORE ESPECIALLY IN RELATION TO

THE PRODUCTION OF WINE:

EMBRACING

An Historical and Descriptive Account of the Grape,

ITS CULTURE AND TREATMENT IN ALL COUNTRIES,

ANCIENT AND MODERN,

DRAWN FROM THE BEST AUTHORITIES,

AND INCORPORATING

A BRIEF DISCOURSE ON WINE.

By JAMES L. DENMAN.



SECOND EDITION, REVISED AND ENLARGED.

LONDON:
LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.

1875.

' Then took a goatskin fill'd with precious wine,
Mellifluous, undecaying, and divine!
The gift of Maron of Evantheus' line,
Which, now some ages from his race conceal'd,
The hoary sire in gratitude reveal'd.
Such was the wine,—to quench whose fervent steam,
Scarce twenty measures from the living stream
To cool one cup sufficed : the goblet crown'd
Breath'd aromatic fragrances around.'

ODYSSEY, b. ix.


In Memoriam.

IT would be ungrateful on my part towards an ever-ready and painstaking *collaborateur*, if I were to allow this book to appear without acknowledging the obligations due to my Father-in-law, the late Mr. GEORGE CLARK, for his valuable assistance in the compilation of this as well as of the former edition of 'The Vine and its Fruit.'

Sad to say, he died just before the completion of the work in which he felt so deep an interest, and on which he bestowed so much loving labour. As an offering of my affectionate respect and regard, as a wreath which he himself largely assisted in entwining, I lay it thus, as it were, upon his tomb, in all reverence and honour.

J. L. D.

P R E F A C E.

HE Second Edition of any work needs comparatively slight introduction ; for its real and best preface is that former edition, the exhaustion of which is the compiler's highest recommendation—as it may also be pleaded to be his best apology. Since the beginning of 1864, when the first edition appeared, there has been a wonderful increase in the imports of foreign wines into this country, and it may be also admitted that the controversy which has been continually waged over the characteristics of those wines has resulted in a considerable improvement of the public taste. It may therefore be hoped that a book which deals with a subject of more and more wide-spreading interest, will itself increase in popularity as time goes by. The beverage which is becoming every year more general deserves to have its history inquired into, and certainly wine may be pronounced as the most noble and ancient of all the beverages of the world. If the maxim '*laudari a viro laudato*' be as sound as it ought to be, wine is the very emperor of good liquor ; no poet, philosopher, sage, since history began, but seems to have extolled the virtues of wine. The classical and the vulgar tongues, the sacred and the secular writers, all are unanimous in bepraising wine, and the obvious conclusion is, that wine well deserves what is said of it by persons who, agreeing upon few other questions, yet concur in this. It is surely well that

Englishmen should know something of the varieties and peculiarities of the different sorts of wine which are pouring in upon them from all quarters of the globe. 'The Vine and its Fruit' was intended to supply some of the required information ; and the approving words bestowed upon the former edition by a critical but generous press, induced the compiler to add to the materials therein collected a number of data more or less interesting in connection with the history of viticulture. The curiosities of wine literature certainly possess a charm for those whose taste at all inclines to the genial side of human life, and in this instance have, it may be said, been studied at all events with considerable perseverance for some fifteen years or more, with what proportion of success it must be for the reader of these pages to determine ; he making, it is to be hoped, some allowance for the difficulties which beset the path of one who, however well acquainted, professionally, with wine, cannot but feel himself working amateur fashion when taking up with the mysteries of pen and ink. If to many readers the extracts herein given from writers of olden time should appear too discursive, or too liberal, it is to be hoped that others may regard them without displeasure, and perhaps may even favour an attempt to rescue from oblivion some of the scattered lore of men and times long since gone by, and now almost forgotten. As regards that portion of the book which deals with the wines of modern commerce, and analyses their relative strengths and values, it will suffice to say that the data have been derived from the most trustworthy authorities, and that there is really no conflict of opinion among them ; on the contrary, it may be asserted that they are unanimous upon the cardinal points of wine merit, namely, that a pure wine, thoroughly fermented and unadulterated is, of whatever vintage, a good and honest beverage—more or less valuable according to quality of course—but each

in its degree and circumstance a fitting and valuable drink. Upon the other hand, the facts and statements point with equal unanimity to the injurious effects produced by the fortifying and be-plastering processes, neither of which is necessary, nor indeed from any point of view in the least excusable. In the hope that this book may aid in the long and wearisome struggle for securing the people of England unadulterated wine, I send these last lines to the press.

JAMES L. DENMAN.

20 PICCADILLY, LONDON, W.

July, 1875.



CONTENTS.

SECTION I.

VINUM ANTIQUUM REDIVIVUM.

Invention of Wine—Career of Bacchus—Patriarchal Appreciation of the Vine—Noah's prescient Mandate—Dissemination of the Vine—Its Properties and Characteristics—Influence of Soil and Climate—Its Fertility and Caprices—English Vineyards—Vinicole Vicissitudes—Varieties, Fecundity, and Longevity of the Vine—Planting and Pruning—Theory of Fermentation—Formation of Alcohol—Chemical Analysis of Wine—European Vintage Production—Virtues and Utility of the Vine Plant—Rural Superstition—German Grape Cure—Winter Storage of Grapes—Vine Maladies and Vicissitudes—The Oïdium Plague . PAGE I

SECTION II.

THE VINTAGES OF THE ANCIENTS.

Early and judicious Culture of the Grape—A Voice from ancient Carthage—Pagan Superstitions—Occult Doctrines—Lunar Influences on Plants and Animals—Treatment of young Wines—Use of the Fumarium—Perverted Taste and singular Expedients—Roman Vintages—Cato's Farm Rules—A Banquet with Lucullus—A royal Gourmand—Wines of Greece ; their superlative Quality—Adulteration and its Penalty—Classic Anthology—Classic Philosophers in their Cups . 45

SECTION III.

AMBROSIAL NECTAR OF THE ANCIENTS : THEIR GORGEOUS CUPS AND FESTAL CUSTOMS.

Dulcet Properties of Greek Wines—Anacreontic Lyrics—Primitive Wine Vessels—Skill of Greek Artists—Murrhine Vases—Glass and Porcelain Ware—Convivial Customs—A Dionysian Festival—Diluted and iced Liquors—Passion for Snow—

Water—A festal Autocrat—Banquets in heroic Times—Luxurious Dinner-couches—Simple Fare of the Trojan Heroes—Roman Culture—Practice of high Training—Fertility of the Campania—Fame of Falernian Wine . . . PAGE 76

SECTION IV.

MODERN WINES: THEIR CHARACTER AND QUALITIES.

Nature of modern Wines—Source of vinous Flavour—Alcoholic Strength of Foreign Wines—Vine-crop precarious—English Vineyards—French Imports—Notable Consumption of Bordeaux Vintages—Legislative Restrictions—Ancient Hospitality—The King, Parliament, and the London Vintners—Dearth of Claret—Judge Bacchus in Session—London in the olden Time—Civic Government—Wines of the Period—Hippocras and Clarry—Medicated Liqueurs—Importation and Popularity of Sack—Old Age without Sicknes—Falstaff's Eulogium on Sack—A Wine Bath—Bottled Wines prohibited—Wine, Beere, and Ale together by the Eares—The Praise of Drunkenness—Sadness prejudicial to Health . . . 102

SECTION V.

RESTRICTIVE INFLUENCES OF LEGISLATION ; FREE RECOURSE TO ARDENT SPIRITS ; ALIMENTARY PROPERTIES OF ALCOHOL.

Diminishing Consumption of Foreign Wine—Discovery of Alcohol—The Treasure of Euonymus—Clamour against Commerce with France—Oppressive Import Duties—Multifarious inebriating Stimulants—The Opium Smoker—Effects of Opium—Siberian alcoholic Fungus—Inordinate Topers—Advent of Ardent Spirits—Anglo-Saxon Intemperance—Primitive Malt Liquors—Use and Abuse of strong Drinks—Total Abstinence injurious—Physiological Effects of Alcohol—Wine preferable to Water—Sanitary Properties of natural Wine—Excess the Harbinger of Disease—Wine a Remedy for Nervous Irritability—Counter Influences . . 149

SECTION VI.

THE WINES OF PORTUGAL.

The Throne of Pomona—Salubrity of the Climate—Vintage Preparations—Process of Manufacture—Its Defects—Blind adhesion to old Customs—The Douro District—The Methuen Treaty—English Dislike of Port—A Farewell to Wine—A Scotch drinking Bout—Old-fashioned Hospitality—Introduction and public Aversion to Tea—Its Properties and possible Effects—First Shipments from Oporto pure—Effect of differential Duties—Factors and Agents—Free Use of Aguardiente—Systematic Adulteration—Oporto Wine Company—The Marquis of Pombal—His wise Statesmanship—Crafty Trading exposed—Official Wine Conners—Oppressive export Regulations—No pure Wine shipped for England—How fortified—Portugal White Vintages—The Grape Malady 187

SECTION VII.

THE WINES OF SPAIN.

Auspicious and congenial Soil—Village Wine-making—Sherry Manufacture—Disliked by the Natives—Defective Transit and Storage—Amontillado Sherry: its high Quality and capricious Nature—Wine Adulterations—The Vineyards of Catalonia and Arragon; New Castile; Manzanares; Valencia, Montillà, Paxarete, Manzanilla, Vino Tinto—Alicante Water Reservoirs—Wine cheaper than Water—Axarquía; its Beauty and Fertility—Malaga Grapes and Raisins—Isles of Majorca and Minorca—Early Irish Commerce with Spain—The *Oidium* and its destructive Effects PAGE 224

SECTION VIII.

THE WINES OF FRANCE.

The Vine-grounds of France—Diversity of Soil and Temperature—Introduction of the Vine—Early Vine-lands proscribed and destroyed; the Prohibition removed—Vinous Merits of French Wines—Their cheerful Properties—Varieties multifarious—Influx of Portugal Wines—English Aversion to Lusitanian Vintages—Public Clamour against novel Imports—French Climate and Soil congenial—Modes of Tillage and Propagation—Vintage Gaieties—Claret; its extended Celebrity—The mineral Waters of Carbonnieux—Ottoman Rigour evaded—Bordeaux in the Days of Louis XIV.—Commerce in the Middle Ages—Burgundy; its rich vinous Growths—Romanée Conti; Clos-Vougeot; Chambertin; Montrachet; Chablis—Hermitage—The Hermit of Tain—Origin of the Vineyard—Côte Rôtie—Château Grille—Wines of Roussillon—Champagne Vintages; Care in Manufacture; their early Fame; Spoils of War; regal Tribute—*Vins de Liqueur*—Absinthe—Wines of Corsica—The Wine Regions of France—Médoc; Beaujolais; Bordelais—Counterfeit Wines of Certe—The Grape Blight 241

SECTION IX.

THE WINES OF GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND.

German vigneron Aspirations—Rigorous Climate—Its Amelioration—The Black Forest—Heidelberg Tun—Intense Frosts—Rhenish Wines; their Character and Quality—The Rheingau—Johannisberger—Steinberg—Rüdesheimer—Hochheimer—Asmannshäusen—Kesseling—Altenahr—Liebfrauenmilch—Bavarian Stein Wine—Wurtemberg—The Palatinate—The Grapes of Meran—The Vine in Switzerland—Chiavenna Wine of the Grisons—White Wines of Sierre and Bex; the red of Sion and Martigny; the *Vin d'Enfer* of Salgetsch; Schaffhausen, the Wine of Blood; Lausanne, Berne, and the Valteline 294

SECTION X.

THE WINES OF ITALY, SARDINIA, AND SICILY.

Homage to Bacchus—Italian Climate and Soil—Luxuriant Vegetation—Native Indolence—Imperfect Tillage—Vintage Reform—Tuscany, the Land of the Vine; Judge Bacchus on Circuit—His Tribunal at Florence—Redi's *Bacco in Toscana*—His Ebriety and its Effects—Nobles their own Vintners—Italian picturesque Training—Wines of the Papal States and Piedmont—The jolly Abbot—A Vintage in Savoy—Wines of the Kingdom of Naples—The Vineyards of Sardinia and Sicily—Imperfect Culture and Treatment—Etna and Vesuvius—Marsala Produce—Isle of Elba—The Grape Distemper PAGE 312

SECTION XI.

THE WINES OF HUNGARY, AUSTRIA, AND THE CRIMEA.

Excellence of the Vintages—British official Report on their Merits—Genial Soil and Clime—Prolific Vine-grounds—Vinous Properties—The Phosphoric Element—The Tokay Vineyard—Regal Munificence—Harvest Operations—Process of Manufacture—Table Wines and Liqueurs—M. de Szémere; his Testimony and Estimates—Purity of the Vintages—Enormous family Cellars—Social Characteristics—A British Wine Inquest—A Vintage Jubilee—The Bânat; its Aspects and Products—Austrian Wines—Maraschino di Zara—Moravia and the Tyrol—The Grape Blight—The Crimea; origin of its Vineyards and successful Culture—Imeritia and Mingrelia, the ancient Colchis 332

SECTION XII.

THE WINES OF SOUTH AFRICA.

The Land of Flora—Ancient ambrosial Vintages extinct—The African Grape—Algerian Viticulture—Vines first planted at the Cape of Good Hope by the Dutch—Favourable Climate and Soil—Its luxuriant Vegetation—Its ancient Days—The Alexandrian Library and Museum—Ptolemy II. and his illustrious Council—His magnificent triumphal Procession and great Wealth—The Vineyards of Stellenbosch, Drakenstein, and Paarl—Dutch Avarice—Slovenly Culture and Manufacture—The Vine-grounds of Constantia—Character of the Vintage—Its careful Management and high Reputation 352

SECTION XIII.

THE WINES OF MADEIRA AND THE CANARY ISLANDS.

Discovered by the Portuguese—Benignity of the Climate—Its volcanic Origin—Its first Colony—High System of Training—Process of Manufacture—Malmsey—Sercial—Tropical Voyages—The *Oidium*—Virulence of the Disease—Estimated pecuniary Loss—Vine Culture abandoned—Adoption of Sugar Plantations—

Renewed Efforts to rehabilitate the Grape—Renewal of the Wine Trade—The Canary Islands—The Canaries—Their famous Vineyards and rich Produce—Teneriffe, and Vidonia Wine—The Azores—Howell's Merry Induction. PAGE 361

SECTION XIV.

THE WINES OF GREECE AND THE WESTERN ARCHIPELAGO.

Continental Greece ; its Aspects, Climate, and Soil—Its modern Produce—Origin of Pruning—Wines of Thessaly—Athenian Vintages—Mount Olympus and its vigneron Contribution—The Morea; its Desolation and Revival—The Archipelago; ancient Fame of the Islands—Their Fertility and Salubrity—Cyprus ; its delicious Vintages—Crete, or Candia ; its fine Wines and subterranean Labyrinth—Candian Wine-bibbers—Chian Wine—Birth-place of Homer—The Mastica Plant ; its healing Properties—Mastica Raki—Samos—Rhodes—Lesbos—Naxos—Bacchus and the first Vine-root—Valleys of Melanés and Potamia—Cos, Thasos, and the minor Isles—Santorin ; its singular Origin ; its strange Vicissitudes ; its physical Attributes ; sublime volcanic Phenomena ; their marvellous Action ; its external Aspects—Ancient Calliste ; first peopled by Cadmus—The second Colony, under Theras the Lacedæmonian ; its modern Name—Titanic Upheavals ; ancient rock Inscriptions—Majestic Scenery of modern Santorin—The submarine volcanic Eruption of 1866 ; a perilous Crisis—Curious Archaic Discovery—Relics of pre-historic Days—Santorin Vineyards—Method of Training—Excellence and Purity of the Produce—Vin Santo ; St. Elie, or Wine of Night ; Wine of Bacchus ; Lachryma Christi—Large and luscious Grapes—The Ionian Islands—Corinth—Patras ; Smyrna—The Currant Vine and Difficulties of Culture 372

SECTION XV.

THE WINES OF PERSIA, ARABIA, AND THE HOLY LAND.

Persia the native Seat of the Vine—The Pamir Steppe—The Scythian Desert—Climatic Severities—Superlative Grapes—Traditionary Origin of Wine—Influence of Soil and Climate—Scorching Summer Heat—Principal Vine Districts—Oriental Intemperance—Indulgence in Wine prohibited—Regal Filial Piety—Disastrous Issue—The Vine in Arabia—Native Anacreontic Effusions—The Patriarchal Age—Jewish Use and Appreciation of Wine—Syria—The Wine of Tyre—Albania—The people of Erzeroum—Asia Minor—The Grapes of Lebanon—Palestine—Jewish Nuptial Festivals—Modern Cana and its Traditions 412

SECTION XVI.

THE WINES OF INDIA, CHINA, AND AUSTRALIA.

Ancient Notions of Indian Opulence—The Hindoo Bacchus—His peaceful Conquests and Apotheosis—Ungential Soil and Climate—Asiatic Ebriety—Penalty for Drunkards—China ; its vinous Products—Early Love of Grape Wine—A regal Sacrifice to Bacchus—Native inventive Genius—Career of 'the Immortal given to Drink ;' his Apotheosis—Jovial Mandarins—National Poets—A Chinese Sonnet—

Mutations of the Vine; its Exportation decreed—Vinous Products—Chinese Lamb-wine—Prohibitory Wine Imports—Introduction of Poppy-juice—Enormous Consumption of Opium; its baneful Effects—Australia—Its first Vines—Successful Culture—New South Wales—Adelaide—Picturesque Vine-grounds—Wine Inquest—Australia Felix—Extended Vine Culture and vigneron Wealth—Character and Quality of the Vintages—New Zealand PAGE 428

SECTION XVII.

THE WINES OF AMERICA.

Universality of the Vine—Profusion of the Vine and its Fruit on the Islets of the Laurence River—First European Knowledge of the Tobacco Plant—Native Mode of Smoking; their Estimation of its Utility—The wild Vines on the Ohio—Viticulture commenced by William Penn—Success of French and Swiss Colonists—Extended Culture—The Catawba Grape—Wine Trade Companies; their extensive Stores and facile Process of Manufacture—A Columbian Wine Harvest—Cuba and its wild Grapes—Mexico; Vines from the Seeds of Malaga Raisins—California; its colossal Vine and extensive Plantations—American Champagne—South American Vine-grounds—Wines of Mendoza—Calamitous Earthquake—Grapes of Peru and Chili rich and fragrant—Their vinous Products—American Grape Blight 449

SECTION XVIII.

ON THE CHOICE AND PRESERVATION OF WINE.

Pure Wine grateful and invigorating—Correct Judgment of Quality—A rare Faculty—Taste a safe Criterion—Virtues of unsophisticated Wine—Purchasing Difficulties—French Nomenclature—Influence of Fashion—Impure Wine deleterious—Mercantile Blendings—Vinous Properties and Power of Endurance—Choice of Dinner Wines and their Management—Storage and Cellarage—Gradations of vinous Maturity—Sensitive Nature of fine Wines—Conservative Cellar Rules—Hygienic Properties of Natural Vintages—Wine a social Blessing 463

APPENDIX.

THE WINES OF MODERN COMMERCE.

Change of Fashion in Wine-drinking—Port and Sherry—Preference for dry rather than for sweet Wines—Acid Wines wholesome—Acidity of Stomach due to sweet rather than acid Wines—Clarets, gradually becoming popular in England—The two Exhibition Reports compared—The origin of Port and Sherry strength artificial—The last delusion, Acidity, investigated—Plastered Wines valueless—Port Wine, its manufacture and what it is; what Sherry is and how it is made—Wines imported from 1794 to 1874 from Portugal, Spain, and France—Greek Wines compared with French—Pure Wine and its Effects—How to know pure Wine—Average strength of Wines at several International Exhibitions—Comparative value of French and English degrees of strength 481

INDEX OF NAMES OF WINES 515



THE
EARLY ORIGIN AND PROGRESS
OF
THE VINE AND ITS FRUIT.

SECTION I.

“ Bountiful Bacchus
Gave man the vine, which cures all mortal grief,—
Parent of genial wine.”—*Astydamas*.

Vinum Antiquum Redivivum.



THE invention of wine, like the origin of many other important arts, is enveloped in the obscurity of the remotest ages of the world ; but in the history of ancient nations it has been commonly ascribed to those chiefs and heroes who contributed most to advance and civilize their respective countries, and to whom divine honours were often rendered in acknowledgment of the benefits they had conferred on mankind ; ‘ which,’ remarks Pliny (book ii.), ‘ was the ancient mode of recompensing those who rendered essential services to man, for the names of all the gods, as well as many of the stars, were derived from signal benefits so bestowed, and thus to promote human welfare was the path to eternal glory.

Without dwelling on the fabulous traditions handed down on the subject, it may be sufficient to observe that the preservation of various fruits and their juices, however rudely practised, doubtless led to the production of stimulating beverages, and the use of wine could not have remained long un-

known to those portions of the globe where the vine freely grows.

Bacchus, the son of Jupiter and Semele, after his training by the Nysæan nymphs at their mountain dwelling in Arabia, or, as others suppose, on the banks of the Indus, is said to have traversed nearly the whole known world, introducing the culture of the grape, and diffusing refinement wherever he went. In old mythologies he is stated to have revealed so many things useful to mankind, that he was universally accorded a distinguished place among the pagan gods. To him they attributed the invention of wine, the method of acquiring honey, tillage and husbandry, commerce and navigation, with many other useful arts and social benefits. He was a great lawgiver, having conquered India and subdued the Egyptians, who honoured him as a deity under the name of Osiris: hence his history became allied to their traditions concerning that ancient ruler, and from this source the Greeks borrowed their notions of him. As he was the god of vintage, of wine, and of toppers, he is usually depicted crowned with vine and ivy-leaves, with a thyrsus in his hand. The panther is sacred to him because he went on his expedition covered with the skin of that animal. He often appears naked, and riding upon the shoulders of Pan, or in the arms of Silenus, who was his foster-father. He is said to have married Ariadne, when forsaken by Theseus at the isle of Naxos, in the Grecian Archipelago, which is still in high repute for the excellence of its wines and fruits.

Little is known respecting the spontaneous migration of the plants of cultivation until we trace them at length in the fruits and cereals of Egypt, Carthage, Greece, and Italy. The vine, with the olive and other trees, no doubt had crossed the wilderness from Armenia and the banks of the Caspian, for it was only in the far east that the vine, the peach, and the fig, the apricot and the pistachio-nut, sprang unbidden from the fertile earth. The first mention of wine in sacred history is in connexion with events that followed the possession of the land of Canaan: "Noah began to be a husbandman, and he planted a vineyard; and he drank of the wine, and was drunken." This was 2,347

years before Christ. It is probable, therefore, that the antediluvians were acquainted with wine, for it is hardly conceivable that men should exist in a country where the vine flourishes almost without culture, without knowledge or appropriation of the refreshing beverage procurable from clustering grapes of luxuriant growth. Noah, anyhow, planted a vineyard immediately after the Flood, and as the adjacent lands were occupied by the sons of Japhet, whilst the families of the Canaanites were 'spread abroad,' they all carried with them a lively remembrance of the cheering liquor which Noah had made, as may be clearly gathered from an ancient historical fragment :—

"When Noah, the second progenitor of the human race, was well stricken in years, and felt his end approaching, he assembled his sons and their families, and made a great feast. After they had well eaten and drunk, Noah sent for the hoarded vine-juice which he himself had raised and pressed ; and it was placed before him bright and limpid in a crystal vessel. Then Noah said, 'A new generation, my sons, has begun with us. The old one fell away, and became the carnal slaves of Nature, over which it was to have held dominion. By its sinfulness it lost its dignity ; therefore was it overpowered and consumed, and Jehovah himself mourned for the fallen race. With us a new era commences. Behold ! I leave you an emblem and a sign whereby ye shall remember your aged sire—even the vine, which I myself have planted. If you misuse its precious fruit, then will it repeat unto you the fearful lesson of a world destroyed. But no ! ye will not do this thing. Let it henceforth be an enduring emblem to remind you of your high mission, for the nature of the trailing plant is weak and lowly. Born from the dust it creeps in the dust, until the tall poplar offers its timely aid, that it may rise and gain impulsive strength by twining around the lofty branches. Thus, also, is man born feeble, a child of dust, and earth draws him downwards, ever prone to sin and disobedience. So let the new generations know their weakness and their strength ; while they walk in humility on earth, let them strive earnestly toward heaven and seek the beatitudes of eternal life.

"Willingly doth the firm tree lend its supporting branches to the lowly vine, which coils itself round them by countless delicate tendrils. Raised above the dust, the grateful plant shoots up in life and vigour ; and when the grape is ripe, it is severed from its parent stem, and its state is changed through crushing pressure. Behold how the limpid

juice sparkleth in the goblet, serene and clear, a sun of light !' Raising now his faltering speech,—

' Take this,' he said, and held aloft
 A vine-stock branching fair,
 ' Heaven's noblest gift to human kind,
 Entrusted to thy care.
 ' Go, plant it on the sunny hills
 For health and length of days,
 And press its fruit for joyous drink,
 And the Creator's praise.'

' Then taste, my sons, and taste it freely, for it fills my saddened heart anew with thankful gladness.' Cheerily he sent the beaker round, and after bestowing a parental blessing on all present, he meekly bowed his head, and with a faint smile passed to his last sleep."

The precise agency of Noah in relation to the utilization of the vine and its fruit has been much debated by historians as well as by Biblical scholars, each with a divergent theory. It is stoutly maintained by Father Frassen, as given in the *Biblio. Journal des Sçavans*, "that people before the Flood fed on flesh, and drank wine." According to him—

"It is not likely that men contented themselves with drinking water for fifteen or sixteen hundred years together. It is much more credible that they prepared a drink more nourishing and palatable. These first men of the world were indued with no less share of intellect than their posterity, and consequently lacked no industry to invent every thing that might contribute to make them pass their lives usefully and agreeably. It was said by our Lord, that in the days of Noah before the Flood men married, and gave their children in marriage. These people," continues Father Frassen, "regaled each other, and made solemn entertainments. Now who can imagine that they drank at those festivals nothing but water, and fed only on fruits and herbs? Noah, therefore, was not the inventor of that utilization which we make of the grape; the most that he did was simply to plant the vine anew."

Procopius of Gaza, too, one of the earliest commentators on Scripture, thought it no less true that the vine was known in the world prior to the advent of Noah; but he would not allow that the use of wine prevailed before the time of that patriarch, who he believes to have been its primary inventor. Be this as it

might, it is demonstrable that as scion after scion fell away from the parent stock, the descendants of Noah carried with them a knowledge of the beneficent plant so solemnly committed to their charge, so that wherever they sojourned it was propagated afresh ; and thus, probably, a knowledge of the vine gradually overspread the more temperate regions of the earth's surface. Its early culture in the land of Egypt is abundantly proved by the scenic paintings found on ancient tombs. Nevertheless, the veritable history of the vine is lost in the obscure mists of antiquity ; but whether or no it may boast for its origin the dignity of a place in the sacred garden of Eden itself, it will scarcely be doubted that Asia was its primitive birth-place. That it was conveyed thence to the nations of Greece by the roving Argonauts is more than probable ; and quickly traversing the Orient, it further passed on to the littoral borders of the Mediterranean basin, and obtained a congenial habitat on the northern coasts of Africa, as well as the southern shores of Europe. What the Argonauts had accomplished in their day, when essaying the venturesome expedition to Colchis, in the Black Sea, the Goths in after times, likewise allured by the enticing fleece of the golden grape, and repelling the perils of the snow-capped Alps, effected by the invasion of Italy in pursuit of the precious vine. Thus, true to its whole career, wine has invariably followed a higher standard of human civilization, for at the outset of human institutions the more urgent requirements of life had to be satisfied before man could bestow a thought on refining his sources of comfort and enjoyment.

Among European countries Italy, it would seem, was the first to receive the vine from the Greek Archipelago, for it existed there in the time of Romulus, (717 B.C.). A century later the founders of Marseilles—the Phoci, carried the plant into southern France, although it is not improbable that its proper or extended culture was delayed till a much later period. In the age of the Gaulish conqueror viticulture on the banks of the Rhine was not even thought of. At that time the olive, the fig, and the vine had their boundaries south of the Cevennes, and not until the third century did they advance up to the Loire. During the

succeeding centenary they could be grown on the west as far as Paris; on the east, close approaching the vicinage of Trêves. In the sixth century the vine was acclimated in Bretagne, Normandy, and Picardy; in the middle ages in Alsace and Lorraine, and even in some localities in the north of Germany. It is said that the vine was brought there from Italy in the year 280 A.D., but the earliest known vineyards were laid out in the neighbourhood of Spire, Worms, and Mayence-on-the-Oder,—the first in the year 458 at Franconia, near Würzburg. Probably the viticulture of Spain and Portugal is equally old, although in the sixteenth century it was first notably improved through the adoption of a noble Rhenish vine, supposed to be the *riesling*. In the middle of the thirteenth century Hungary received its first vines, likewise from Italy, and all other European vineyards belong to later times, each cultivated with such improvements as progressive skill and experience reciprocally suggested.

It is not a little curious to notice in their progress, how differently the utility of alcoholic drinks has been viewed in creeds promulgated in early and barbarous ages. The *Koran* rigidly prohibits their use altogether; but the *Edda* constitutes it an heroic virtue to drink much liquor. Before the conversion of the ancient Scandinavians to Christianity, they believed that one of the chief sources of happiness in the hall of Odin was excessive indulgence in inebriating drinks. All the American Indians are much addicted to strong liquors, and they use various methods of inducing intoxication,—a state, in their estimation, of magical delight. They had already contrived to make wine from palm-juice, and a kind of sweet ale from Indian corn, which they drank with much gusto and freedom, when the European settlers of North America brought with them the modes of drunken revelry practised in their own countries; and artfully summoning the powerful aid of their spirituous liquors for the work of exterminating the helpless aborigines, they experienced no difficulty whatever in bringing them into high and ready demand. It is said by a French *littérateur*, that one of these poor savages, on being asked his notion of brandy, of whose use he was so much enamoured, answered, in the florid style

of his people, "It is made of tongues and hearts ; for when I have drunk of it I fear nothing, and palaver like an angel."

The general characteristics of the vine are familiar to every one. Parent of the noblest fruit in the whole vegetable kingdom, it obtains and deserves the most careful and assiduous culture. Differing in flavour, form, and size, the grape is mostly sweet, often luscious in taste ; whilst there are species diminutive in shape, and of a harsh and disagreeable flavour. It also varies much in colour, from a rich violet to a jet black, or a white, green, or golden hue. This distinction resides wholly in the skin, the pulp of every kind, save one variety, having the same internal tint. Although the general qualities of the plant are similar in all countries, the fruit it produces is greatly dependent upon external influences. Colour and size, form and taste, aroma and product, vary in so remarkable a manner, as might lead us to regard the vine as a peculiar gift of a bounteous and all-protecting Creator :—

"Tender in shoot, but large of cane and leaf,
Its purple fruit, delicious to the taste,
Produces wine to cheer the heart of man,—
To heal the sick, and to support the weak,—
To comfort all !"

The family of the grape-vine is in many respects a remarkable one. When its merits and advantages speak so forcibly and so truly, it can be of little wonder that the vine, started so efficiently on its mission round the earth, is still found to exist in a wild state in the temperate regions of Asia, as well as in China and Japan. In the New World, again, the number of wild-growing grape-vines in its vast forests is strikingly large. In the milder atmosphere of the La Plata states of South America it meets, at 40° S. latitude, its southern boundary, the more distant Australian shores offering it a new and congenial home. Its dominion in Europe extends from the strand of Oporto to the banks of the Rhine, and thence through its more central provinces to the fertile shores of the western Archipelago ; and it may be further said, that wherever maize, or the walnut and chestnut thrive, there the 'vine and its fruit' are contented to dwell.

Next to wheat there seems to be no plant so universal. Its subdivisions are very numerous, and great inequality may be observed, not only in grapes that abound in different parts of the earth, but even in those growing in the same country and raised on the same spot, for every season bears the impress of its own specialities. A like variance, indeed, though less strongly marked, may be perceived in fruit of the same vine. Protect one cluster from too great exposure to the sun, and cover it with a bell of dark glass, or with oiled paper, and leave another exposed, and you will obtain a much higher-scented product in the former than in the latter. It is not strange, therefore, that the grapes which grow on the sunny side of Johannisberg, for instance, should be very superior, so far as flavour and fragrance are concerned, to those raised on the opposite side of the mountain, nor that, in general, a more piquant and stronger wine is produced in warm regions than in such as are cold or temperate. If we add to this that the peculiarity of soil, its constituents, the influx and drainage of water, the lightness or stiffness of the ground in which the roots spread, and further, that the dryness or humidity of the air, and the change or equality of temperature, exercise a sensible influence upon the plant and its fruit, a general idea may be formed of the varying character of the juice that constitutes the principal element in this grateful product, upon the excellence and perfection of which the goodness of the wine mainly depends.

Nature has endowed the earth with a universal and almost inexhaustible power of raising the necessities of life ; but she has curtailed within precise and moderate limits the ready production of luxuries. It is a well-known physical fact, that although the vine is distributed over one-third of the globe, the wines of each locality bear a peculiar and distinctive character, and the varieties of its fruit are rendered innumerable by the size, the colour, and the flavour of the berries. In one place they are lustrous with a rich purple colour, while in another, again, they glow with a rosy tint, or else are glossy with their pale verdant hue. When transplanted from a southern to a northern latitude the vine soon becomes impaired in quality, but

it improves when carried to a warm climate ; and it is somewhat remarkable, that the attempts hitherto made to transplant a particular species to another clime have been but rarely attended with such a measure of success as to reproduce in the new site precisely the same distinctive properties that signalized it in the old. Whatever care may be bestowed to select an identity of nutrition, aspect, and climate, the grape on removal loses its former special and peculiar attributes ; and we are assured by Pliny, ages ago, (b. xiv. 6,) that the rich grape of the Tauro-menian hills degenerated in most parts of Italy, and that the Falernian berry lost its excellence when removed from one end of the Campania to the other. It is a further well-known fact, that the excellent vines brought to Fontainebleau from the Levant in the reign of Francis I., produce but a very ordinary crop in their new home ; and in yet more recent days select plants exported from Burgundy to the Cape of Good Hope, under the ardent sun of that distant region yield strong wines only, which certainly possess nothing in common with the refined properties of French Burgundy. Vines, when taken from France, Germany, or the Peninsula to the Cape and Australia, furnished wines totally different from their previous growth, and no European sort retains its identity when transferred to American ground. The wine of one and the same stock which gave Hock upon the Rhine, became Bucellas in Portugal, and Sercial in Madeira. The red wines of Portugal grown in the Alto Douro can no more be made in the adjoining provinces of the Minho or Beira, than the white wines of Spain could be practically imitated on the banks of the Rhine. The vine district of the Rheingau is but nine miles in length, by half as many broad. Grapes are indeed a mystery. The wines of Burgundy and the Garonne take their names respectively from circumscribed spots ; and so narrow and seemingly capricious are their several limits, that a ditch divides portions whose produce from time immemorial has been sought with avidity, from others that uniformly bring but one-fifth the price of their more favoured neighbour. The costly Clos Vougeot grows on a farm of eighty acres ; that of Romanée Conti is but six and a half ;

and the famous Montrachet of the Côte d'Or is separated into three classes, of which one sells at one-third less than the best of the other two, and the second at one-half that of the first : yet these varying qualities are raised from spots of ground divided from each other only by a footpath ; they have the same aspect, and apparently the same soil, in which the same vine is planted, and all are managed precisely in the same way. Art and science have been exerted to extend the bounds thus prescribed by Nature with results but little satisfactory, for the choicest wine of any known vineyard has never been successfully reproduced beyond it. This intractability may possibly be attributable in some measure to the peculiar nature of the substratum which the several roots happen to penetrate. Hence it is manifest that it is not altogether owing to the species of plant, but to the accident of soil, climate, and mode of culture, that wines are indebted for their peculiarities of flavour, fragrance, character, and general excellence.

The vine is a hardy plant, and will grow so far north that it can do no more than blossom. It decreases in size with the decline of temperature when raised in open grounds. The climate most congenial to its nature extends from the 35th to the 50th degree of latitude ; but wherever the grape will ripen, its juice can be fermented into a beverage that will bear the name of *wine*, however deficient it may be in those refined qualities which we, in England, are accustomed to associate with it. At its northern boundary the vine is a stunted shrub ; in the warm south it spreads from tree to tree with a luxuriance of vegetation proportioned to the more genial influence of the climate. The vines of Tuscany, or of Granada, and those of Coblentz, present a curious contrast, both in appearance and fruit. On the one, Nature bestows a prodigality of beneficent character ; on the other, she seems to abandon her stunted offspring to man. In some parts of England, in propitious seasons, the grape will ripen very well ; but the uncertainty of its climate prevents any attempt at cultivation with a view to the wine-press. Great Britain has a mean temperature as high as many parts of the world where the vine flourishes in perfection ; but

although it is warmer than some of those countries in the winter, the temperature is lower in the months of September and October, at which period the fruit is arriving at maturity.

The vine must have been known in this country at a very early period, since we find it mentioned in the writings of Tacitus, who observes, "In this island there is no intense cold; and besides the olive and the vine, and other fruit-trees natural to warmer climates, the soil produces corn in considerable quantities." He adds, further, that the natives were fed on a rude diet; at their meals each man had his mess to himself, and they drank freely of "barley corrupted into the likeness of wine." Ale and mead, or metheglin, were served at the feasts of our Saxon ancestors, and wine was only an occasional luxury. On the repeal by the emperor Probus, in 282, of the edict of Domitian against all tillage of the grape, its culture in Britain was resumed, although more, it would seem, for shade and ornamentation than for the sake of the fruit. Camden and others date its first introduction here in the early part of the fourth century; and we learn, on the still more reliable testimony of the venerable Bede, that prior to the commencement of the eighth century the restoration of the plant had made considerable progress. Before that period the vine was confined for the most part to monastic institutions; but after a time, and through many disturbing influences, it was again to be seen, not only about the abode of the rich and powerful, but adorning many a rural home in the southern provinces of England, affording a source of emolument as well as of pleasure to the yeomen peasantry of that day. There is thus abundant evidence that vineyards did once exist in this country, and towards the middle of the twelfth century, as recorded by William of Malmesbury, they extended over large districts, producing abundantly, especially in the vale of Gloucester, regarding which he tells us, that "no county in England has more or richer vineyards, or which yield greater plenty of grapes, or of more agreeable flavour. The wine has not a disagreeable sharpness to the taste, as it is little inferior to that of France in sweetness." In the counties also of Worcester, of Hereford,

Somerset, Cambridge, and Essex, there are spots still called vineyards, many of them originally the appurtenances of particular church establishments, whose ruins are still seen in their vicinity. Canterbury church and St. Alban's monastery owned extensive vine-grounds. At Durweston, in Dorsetshire, there once existed a thriving plantation of considerable dimensions and much repute; and to this day 'the Vyne' in Hampshire, which gives its name to the Hunt so well known to sportsmen, is said to record the vine which was first planted there by the Romans in the reign of the emperor Probus. Vine-lands, moreover, are occasionally referred to in the laws of Alfred, and in other early muniments; whilst in Domesday-book mention is made of them about eight-and-thirty times, and notably, among others, that in the village of Westminster; at Chenetone, in Middlesex; at Ware, in Hertfordshire; and at Hanten, in Worcestershire; most that were planted after the Conquest either appertaining to different monasteries, or freely cultivated by the wealthy for amusement rather than profit. Neither, according to Geoffrey of Monmouth, were the metropolitan suburbs in the closing years of Saxon rule altogether bare of these graceful appliances, as it is stated that "without the city walls the old Roman vineyards still put forth their green leaves and crude clusters in the plains round East London, in the fields of St. Giles's, and on the site where now stands Hatton Garden,"—known for generations afterwards as a goodly appanage of the bishopric of Winchester; Saffron-hill, and Vine-street, built at the time of the Revolution of 1688, alone preserving any remembrance of the exact position of its ancient vineyard.

In adverting to this subject, Holinshed, in his *Chronicles*, writes somewhat reproachfully,—

"I will touch in this place one benefit which our nation wanteth, and that is wine; the fault whereof is not in our soile, but the negligence of our cuntrymen (especially of the south partes), who do not inure to this commoditie, and which by reason of long discontinuance is now become vnapt to beare anie grapes almost for pleasure and shadow, much lesse than the plaine fields or seuerall vineyards for aduantage of this commoditie. . . . If it be true, that where wine doeth last and inure well, there it will grow no worse, I muse not a little wherefore the

planting of vines should be neglected in England . . . The old notes of tithes for wine that yet remaine in the accompts of some parsons and vicars in Kent and elsewhere, besides the records of sundrie sutes in diuerse ecclesiastical courts, not to speake of the enclosed parcels in euery abbie yet called 'the vineyards,' are sufficient testimonie, as also the plot which we now call East Smithfield, in London, giuen by Canutus, sometime king of this land, with other soile there about, vnto certeine of his knights, with the libertie of a Guild, which ther was called Knighten Guild. The truth is, (saith John Stow, our countrieman and diligent traveller), that it is now named Port soken Ward, and giuen in time past to the religious house within Algate . . . The Isle of Elie, also, was in the first times of the Normans called 'Le Ile de Vignes;' and good record appeareth that the bishop there yearlie had three or foure tunne at the least giuen him, besides whatsoever summe of the liquor did accrue to him by leases and escheats. Wherefore our soile is not to be blamed, as though our nights were so exceeding short, that in August and September the moone, which is ladie of moisture, and chief ripener of this liquor, cannot in anie wise shine long enough vpon the same: a verie meere toie and fable, right worthie to be suppressed, because experience conuinceth the upholders therof, euen in the Rhenish wines."

In various other ecclesiastical records similar entries appear, whilst to all the greater abbeys vine-grounds were attached; and as these institutions were generally erected in fertile and well-sheltered valleys, the best spots for the plant were doubtless situate in their immediate vicinity. In after times, when it was found by experience that the crop would not repay the grower more than one year in seven, open cultivation became neglected, was gradually abandoned, and the cherished expectations of an English wine-producing vintage passed indefinitely away in the dubious mists of time.

The author of an ancient quarto tract called *Cornu-Copia*, a *Miscellaneum of fructiferous Experiments and Discoveries*, says, "There were many vineyards planted here in England till most abusively put down for the benefit of Customs. An old vine lately in Kent produced near a hogshead of pure wine, the increase of a vineyard being by computation four tuns per acre." The ingenious author proposes also to show "how grapes may be made to grow upon oaks more plentifully, pleasantly, and

as full of juice as any other grapes whatsoever ; and how they may be quickened to ripe as soon as cherries."—*Harleian Mis.*

Wine countries have always been favourably regarded by political economists, as constituting a perennial source of healthful occupation and support for a numerous population ; yet, even where aided by a favouring soil and clime, poverty and squalor too commonly aggravate their humble lot. That the inhabitants of many communes in France are exceedingly poor is obvious to every passing traveller ; but although somewhat may, here as elsewhere, be fairly ascribed to errors of culture, injudicious selection of the stock-plant, inattention to the nature of the soil, situation, and aspect, to unskilful pruning, or contracted means and intermittent labour, yet it must be admitted that the state of positive indigence which prevails in many of these districts is greatly aggravated by the heavy and arbitrary public imposts that burthen the cultivator and his produce, the quality and value of which seldom constitute incidents of the taxation exacted. Another and chief among the causes that undermine the welfare of the wine-grower is the too frequent failure of the grape-crop itself, which alone would be disastrous to the smaller class of farmers, were it not that a single prime vintage will often repair the ill fortune caused by preceding bad ones ; though it is undoubtedly equally true, that the poorest among the producers may have been ruined before the tide of good luck comes to their rescue ; for it is only in the case of the vineyards that yield the choicest growths, and where the proprietors possess sufficient capital to enable them to store their wines till they acquire that excellence which time and judicious treatment alone can give, that this branch of culture becomes fully remunerative or reliable. Nevertheless, there remains one redeeming and gratifying feature to be noticed in connexion with this alluring pursuit, forming as it does one of the few industrial employments adapted to female labour. A striking proof of this fact will be found in the following well-authenticated statement :—

“Thomery and Montreuil were once two poor villages in the vicinity of Fontainebleau and Vincennes, where the inhabitants long languished

in poverty and squalor. A single vegetable product, given over to the casual care of the women, sufficed to raise them from their servile condition. The 400 acres of land which constituted the territory of the two villages were composed of barren and stony ground, totally uncared for in the time of Henry IV. Happily for the patient peasantry the grape-vine was experimentally planted here, and soon proving fruitful on account of an appropriate soil, its fruit obtained early fame as one of the most delicious varieties the kingdom produced. In the whole world, perhaps, there is not another village community of equal social interest. The whole district seems like a miniature republic, the members of which dwell together in true family unity. All the residents are industrious—rich after their manner, and happy; and yet the labour of the women is singularly light, and well suited to their health and strength. They have to turn aside the leafage to allow the sun's rays to reach the expanding clusters; they have carefully to cut off all damaged parts of the vine or fruit, and at vintage-tide to sever the bursting grapes with tender care; and when the time of sale arrives, they must gather from the neighbouring wastes the fragrant heath that imparts a balsamic odour to the luscious berries. These are all matters requiring a certain delicacy of touch which feminine fingers alone can effect. So the grapes of Fontainebleau and Thomery became everywhere throughout France famous as a fruit of the highest flavour and delicacy, while the humble villagers, through the judicious culture of a single plant, and the natural exercise of feminine aptitude and perseverance, obtained comparative wealth in lieu of former poverty,—refining civilization in place of a semi-barbarism."—*Persons and Conditions in the Times of the Restoration.*

Unhappily, this is an exceptional case even among the active and inventive children of France,—a solitary episode in vinicole history,—notably conspicuous by its absence wherever the grape is garnered for the making of wine, or whatever the race devoted to its cultivation.

In the ripening of the grape, the point of chief importance is the duration of summer heat. Thus, although the maximum of the season's temperature is as great at Moscow as in Paris, yet the vine will not properly ripen its fruit at the former place; and this arises from the fact that, notwithstanding the greatest heats of June and July are as high as that of Paris, the months of August and September are several degrees below. Nor will

the mean temperature serve as a rule to indicate where the plant thrives best; yet it will grow in any ground which is not infected by stagnant waters, and flourishes most in that which is dry, light, and stony or sandy. Porous land, particularly when gravelly or chalky, yields the pleasantest wines,—fresh and light. The more calcareous the soil, the drier and more friable it is, the better for the wine; the water which falls at intervals permeates freely to the roots, the surplus is carried off by the pervious nature of the ground, and the product will be fine, dry, and generous. Granitic soils, or those mingled with decomposed particles of that rock, also yield good wines. Strong argillaceous loam is very prejudicial to the vine, as it not only restrains the free expansion of the roots, but often imparts an earthy taste to the produce. In central France it thrives in argillaceous slate; in the north, fat sand, with a mixture of calcareous loam, is preferred. The best Burgundy comes from a clayey lime soil; Champagne from a more thorough lime bed; Hermitage from a granitic, and Châteauneuf, Graves, and Médoc from a sandy soil. A slaty ground produces Vin de la Garde and the wine of Lamalgue, grown near Toulon. Almost every free combination of earths and rocks will answer, but the injurious effects of too moist a site, or too rich an animal manure, are well known; as are the exhaustion and deterioration of soils, which, though formerly the homes of generous wines, are no longer capable of supplying them of equal quality.

In Italy and Sicily the choicest plants grow among the rubbish of volcanoes. Three-fourths of all vines are planted on hilly ground, and wines of the highest class are made from such as are reared among stone and loose pieces of rock, with little attention save occasionally raking the ground around them. Rich, highly-dressed land has never produced wine of preferable quality. In districts where the summer is sufficiently long and warm, and the temperature throughout the year never sinks below a minimum of 50 degrees of Fahrenheit, the vine matures nothing but ripe and well-flavoured fruit; and when the bearing is exuberant, the quantity as well as quality is dependent entirely upon local climatic incidents. In all the

varying species of vine, however, there is a peculiar inherent principle on which mainly depends the quality of the wines made from them, distinct from each other in body, efficacy, and value. This noble or sovereign principle resides in the plant itself, and constitutes the great difference found to exist between one vintage and another; viz. its flavour, taste, body, salubrity, and restorative properties. The grape that yields the largest portion of saccharine matter makes the best wine; no other ingredient will compensate for a deficiency in sugar, on which also depends the amount of alcohol formed in fermentation. Hence the marked superiority of the vintages of the Greek Archipelago, whose growths, by reason of the high temperature, the volcanic soil and uniform meteorological influences of that locality, furnish the best if not the only absolutely pure natural wines known in this country. Resting on their own innate vigour they need neither spirits to fortify, nor sugar, resin, or other foreign material to flavour or preserve them.

Of all fruits the grape, perhaps, is the most susceptible of alteration in its nature from the influence of nutrition and solar heat, and to this cause its varying qualities might appropriately be referred, rather than to any normal difference of species, which are very numerous. Fourteen hundred sorts from the provinces of France once adorned the gardens of the Luxembourg, of which above a thousand appeared worthy of a particular description; in 1844 a new catalogue was published, which extended the number to two thousand. The botanical character and minute distinctions of those enumerated are not easy of perception, even on the spot where they grow: the unpractised eye cannot discriminate them. In all, however, the general properties of the plant are carefully noted, so as to be readily recognised wherever the vine is cultivated, whether in regions that will properly mature the grape or not, which, as previously mentioned, varies with the influence of climate, the power of the sun, the atmospherical exposure, the character of the season, and the mode of tillage. Two hundred and fifty varieties are also particularized as cultivated in the kingdom of Andalusia alone. The quality of the grape is necessarily deter-

mined by the nature of the vine that produces it. Of some kinds the fruit is hard and rough; of others, it is sweet and mild: some varieties contain much saccharine matter; in others, the mucilaginous principle abounds. Nor can these distinctions be always ascertained by the taste; for two grapes may appear almost equally sweet, and yet on examination present very different constituents. Thus the ripe muscadine grape of Fuencaral was found to yield 30 per cent. of solid sugar, and the wine made from it is very sweet and generous; but the *chasselas* of Fontainebleau, though an exquisite grape to the palate, affords very little sugar. This species is cultivated exclusively for the table, the wine it furnishes being dry and indifferent, for its sweetness proceeds not so much from the sugar secreted in the berry, as from the superabundance of the mucoso-saccharine matter. The finest bunches are sent to the Paris markets packed in small baskets, and sold at from 40 to 60 sous each, according to weight and condition. The red varieties usually ripen ten or twelve days sooner than the white, and in cultivation it is of importance to keep them separate. The age to which the vine continues to bear well, ranges ordinarily from sixty to seventy years, often more, and under favourable circumstances of site and soil it is long lived. In the Gironde, when properly attended to, it will last from 100 to 150 years. In the commune of Pauillac, in a gravelly soil, there are vines 200 years old; whilst at Pessac some are shown of a yet greater age, planted, as is there traditionally believed, in the fourteenth century, during the pontificate of Clement V. A vine in Burgundy is credibly recorded to have lived 400 years, and in Italy plants three centuries old continue to flourish productively. In 1585 North Allerton, in the west riding of Yorkshire, possessed a vine that covered 137 square yards, and was then a hundred years old. Another remarkable one is to be seen at Kinnell, in Perthshire, which fills a vinery 89 feet long, with a sloping roof of $18\frac{1}{4}$ feet, being equivalent to about 230 superficial yards of glazed surface. It covers the whole building, the stem, before branching off, measuring 6 feet in length by 16 inches in circumference. It maintains a healthy, vigorous growth, and its

age (1867) is stated to be 37 years. The grapes are richly coloured, of sufficient excellence to obtain first-class prizes, and for several seasons the average crop has exceeded 600 bunches. A magnificent vine at Valentines, in Essex, is known to have produced in one season 2,000 bunches of a pound each, filling a space of 147 square yards; and the celebrated black Hamburgh vine now thriving at Hampton Court, and filling an ample hot-house 72 feet in length by 30 feet in breadth, has grown in one year 2,200 clusters of grapes of the finest quality, averaging a pound weight each.

In selecting the plants most suitable for a vineyard, the choice is never confined to one species. This would be thought hazardous and unwise. Five or six kinds are not infrequent in the plantations most celebrated for their produce, and thus occasional deficiency in one sort is often counteracted by abundance in another. The modes pursued in planting, training, propping, and more especially of pruning the vine, which vary in different countries, further influence the character of the produce, and these are generally governed by custom and other local circumstances. The season for planting is best determined by the climate. In southern localities it takes place in the autumn, by which a year is gained in bearing; for the north, the more favourable time is towards the end of February, when the harder frosts and heavy rains are over. In pruning, the vines are thinned three times before they bear fruit, when the operation is again repeated, and few plants yield more readily to manual control. They may, however, be as easily hurt in this as benefited: severe pruning, for instance, has often proved detrimental, disease being thereby sometimes occasioned. The vine, indeed, demands and is accustomed to much freedom; if restrained or checked beyond certain well-defined limits, imperfect development will undoubtedly ensue. Clip freely any superfluous upward growth, that the wood may be more fully consolidated, and the fruit uniformly ripened: excess of either impedes the welfare of the plant, yet a due proportion must be maintained between both. This is indispensable in any struggle for pre-eminence, and it should not be forgotten that wood is the beginning and ending

of what is most needed to make grapes abundant. With the experienced vintager it is a steadfast axiom that 'wood well clipped rears wood again ;' and grapes, they say, 'will come from old wood alone.' Vigorous, not forced growth should be the leading motive, and a well-conditioned leafage is the medium through which this might be obtained. Allow a sufficient number without causing any excess of evaporative power, and the object in view will be accomplished, for when the balance between bark and leaf is duly sustained, the leaf will aid in the secretion of sounder wood, with larger, sweeter, and early-maturing fruit. This operation should, nevertheless, be strictly kept within proper bounds. Over-close pruning, or pinching back the cluster, would be an imprudent interference with the natural progress of the vine ; and if frequently repeated it would become weakened, stunted, an easy prey to disease, and a constitutional injury inflicted, from which the plant would hardly recover.

No sooner have the first warm days of Spring exercised their influence, than a free developement of the nascent plant commences. A flow of sap will continue to rise from the roots sufficient in a few days to permeate and nourish the whole vine. Under the pressure of this fructifying moisture every part of the vinous wood simultaneously expands. By the deposit of glandular lobes or knots at differing distances from each other sap-cells are formed, which indicate the several points where, first the leaf, and afterwards the eyes of propagation will appear. At the lower end of the leaf-stem two of these nodules, formed beneath the bark during the previous summer, now burst their winter covering, of which one, beginning its growth at once, is destined to constitute the future root in the work of planting or grafting ; while the other, for the better fulfilment of co-ordinate functions, remains quiescent until the approach of the ensuing summer. On these eyes, or buddings, depend the growth and productive vintage of the following harvest season, and bespeak the timely notice and attention of the cultivator. The protection provided by Nature for the incipient germs of the eyes is simple, yet effective ; encompassed by a woolly hair-like substance, the intrusion of wet and cold is averted, and it is seldom that any

serious injury is sustained during the succeeding winter. Two years, however, intervene between the birth of the eyes and the maturity of the first grapes.

Of these eyes, as already said, there are two kinds. The wood-eyes produce the stem and the leaves; the fruit-eyes the blossom and the grapes. The former are the less delicate and sensitive, are perfected in their first year, and retain their place permanently; while the latter patiently await their full development until a second year. The leaves may be said to constitute one of the most vital organs of the parent vine, and call for a vigilant watchfulness from cultivators, their co-operation towards a healthy expansion being of a manifest and important character when the nature and scope of the duties are sufficiently understood. The main stalk of the vine-leaf is composed of a series of small capillary tubes, for transmitting the fluent sap from the adjacent stem. On reaching the nether portion of the leaf it diverges into five different arms, of which the central one is always the longest and strongest, rises straight up, and divides the leaf into two equal portions. From either side of this principal rib two others branch off, and thus every vine-leaf shows five ribs, all supplied with sap, which extend to the extreme edge of the leaf. The space between the ribs is clothed with a spongy substance containing cellular tissues gorged with sap, by which the leaf receives its form and sustenance. The ribs further lead the nutritive juices of the vine to the leaves, and at the same time return to the parent stem the carbonic acid generated in the transit, the minute split-formed holes visible on the outer skin of the leaf constituting its natural pores. The upper surface is thus destined to serve for the emission of all its evaporations, whilst the lower side, with its rougher exterior, is provided with numerous delicate organs for the office of inhaling and absorbing, which may well be considered as the lungs of the plant, analogous to the organs of respiration that belong to the animal system. Leaves in a healthy state exhale oxygen during the hours of sunshine, inhaling at the same time carbonic acid, while during the night the reverse of this operation obtains. A rich fulness of sap should always be an

object of solicitude, as the thriving and growing powers of the plant, as well as the fruit, rest on a plump and healthy foliage, and a grape-vine too severely denuded of it must dwindle and decay. Scarcely less injurious is the mistaken notion that a close cutting down of the leaves, to expose thereby the clusters more freely to the full rays of the sun, will accelerate the ripening process. The secretion of its sugar and the maturity of the grape can never be aided in this way, and the result of such treatment would probably be a gradual paralysis of the organs of transmission, attended by a roasting and premature shrivelling up of the berry.

The picturesque formation and ample leafage of the vine afford also an agreeable shade in the garden or the grove, and shelter the tender shoots, the blossom, and the fruit against wind and rain, and other adverse manifestations of a capricious atmosphere. Its flowers are lovely symbols of the incipient fruitage, while the leaves seem to possess a special life of their own. When with the declining season, as vegetation relaxes its sway and becomes dormant, the airy leaf has also accomplished its mission ; it withers, dries up, and drops listlessly to the ground, the sport of every gusty wind of chilly Autumn.

Much, it may be further observed, must be attributed to the action of the soil in the progress of expansion. The roots must correspond in extent with the branches, and there must be present the proper nourishing pabulum. Just what is most preferable is not over clear ; but wood-ashes and bone-dust are excellent fertilizers. With very productive sorts, thinning out the clusters may be advisable. If an excess of fruit be permitted to mature, small bunches and reduced flavour will be the consequence ; and a tardy harvest will follow the absence of a commensurate foliage. Remove the smaller and latest clusters where most crowded, and better err in the way of severity than leave an excess of fruit, for that loss will be compensated by heavier bunches, improved flavour, and earlier maturity. Let no 'pity' for the lost fruit deter, as the surplus grapes thus sacrificed will make the rest all the finer and richer. A vine thus properly trained and cultivated can be made, with its dainty leafage and

pendant clusters tastefully arranged trellis-wise, highly ornamental and pleasing to the eye, a screen from the mid-day sun, and rich in savour delicious to the palate.

The importance of careful training is everywhere recognised, and ingenuity has been exhausted in judicious endeavours to meet the varying peculiarities of differing sites. In ancient times the Romans trained their stocks along palisades placed at convenient distances, or from tree to tree; and this, which is called the high method of training, is still partially followed in Italy and some communes of the south of France. When two or more roots are planted near a tree, the shoots soon run up the trunk; sustained by and interlacing with the several branches, they droop in graceful festoons, and impart around an air of cultivated opulence. Most persons imagine that this is the mode adopted in all vineyards; hence they are disappointed on first visiting the Continent, more particularly the cooler northern districts. The low system of training came originally from Greece, and has been subject to various modifications. It was adopted at Marseilles when it was a Phœcean colony, and is now the ordinary usage in France, Germany, Switzerland, and Hungary. The vines of Greece, Cyprus, and Candia are seldom above three feet high, but growing very thick in the stem, and trimmed like pollards, they are left to themselves. In some countries the branches are trained so low as to remain without any support, or are made to rest on little rods in circles near the ground: in Baden they are raised on pyramids of poles in a complex manner, which is found to expose a larger portion of the fruit to the solar action. In France an ancient Gaulish practice has continued to the present day in Bearn, Provence, and the eastern part of Dauphiné, of intertwining the branches with each other, a system differing essentially from that in use among the Romans. In the numerous communes of Médoc the main stem is not permitted to exceed a foot in height, when it is secured by stakes; to these are joined horizontal laths, on which the young shoots are laid when carefully trimmed. The grapes are thus prevented from touching the ground, whilst they benefit from both the direct and reflected heat of the sun's

rays, as well as from the warm exhalations that ascend from the earth ; and this is considered to be the most perfect mode of treatment known. At Weissenbourg, in Alsace, the vines are trained in long arcades and summer bowers, or on palisades near walls of different elevations. The former style of culture is pleasing and suitable enough for the garden, but is not equally appropriate for the vineyard, because the plant is deprived of the full influence of the sun, and being often trained to a considerable height, is continually exposed to the action of the cold winds. The fruit of high vines never ripens so fully and equally as on those which are trained low ; and it may be freely taken as a sound maxim, that the nearer the stems are kept to the ground, provided there is no contact, the better will be the ripening fruit. Where it is permitted to grow without check, it will ascend to the top of the highest trees, and distribute its shoots in all directions ; but the grapes so matured will be proportionately inferior, and the wine made from them prove hard and austere ; for the greater the exuberance of fruit, the worse will be its quality, yielding a weak and defective juice that soon turns acid, as the must of wild grapes will always do.

For due success in raising fruit of the highest quality there is a limit, as already noted, to be observed in the quantity of grapes a vine should be allowed to bear. For measuring the capabilities of fruit-bearing vines grown in the open, Mr. Clement Hoare, a Californian œnologist, has propounded a scheme for determining this problem, and lays down the following scale of proportion, the result of much experience and careful study, as applicable to the circumference of the trunk measured just above the ground :—

Circumference.	lbs.	Circumference.	lbs.
3 inches	5	6½ inches	40
3½ „	10	7 „	45
4 „	15	7½ „	50
4½ „	20	8 „	55
5 „	25	8½ „	60
5½ „	30	9 „	65
6 „	35	10 „	75

“It will be apparent,” he goes on to say, “that if 2½ inches be

deducted from the girth of the stock of any vine, its capability will be equivalent to the production of 10 lbs. of grapes for every remaining inch of wood. My observation has extended over a great number of vines through successive seasons, and the result has uniformly been that the weight of healthy fruit has not exceeded the proportion marked on the scale. No vine is noticed until its stem reaches three inches in circumference, as under that size vines ought never to be suffered to ripen fruit. This is a rule for the vineyard that should be rigorously adhered to, for it may be safely asserted that for every pound weight of grapes raised from a vine before it has attained that size, ten pounds will be lost during the next five years, independently of the severe check given to its welfare by premature bearing. By thus husbanding its strength till the roots have ramified sufficiently to provide a full supply of nutriment without attendant exhaustion, the plant commences its fruit-bearing life with a degree of vigour that will lay a sure foundation of future prosperity."

It would really seem that the wine-plant, the beverage of civilization and reward of thoughtful culture, exacts more intelligent treatment than any other member of the vegetable world before it consents to progress, and recompense a careful nursing with blossom and fragrance. Plants, indeed, may be said to resemble men in this, that the higher the grade of civilization to which they aspire, the greater care is needed in their education. If the vine is not to run wild, the pruning process, as we have seen, must be followed up with sound judgment and patient industry in regulating the growth of the nursling. Even its training-poles must not be carelessly set, lest, to speak figuratively, they tread on the corns of the roots of this fastidious plant. Yet, after all might be done that skill and experience could suggest, after bestowing year by year the same unvarying round of toil, the same difficult and troublesome operations, the same trim preparation of soil and root, a host of treacherous goblins lurk behind to spoil or impede. In spite of the most sedulous nursing, the vine might languish under the biting influence of inclement skies, and the ripening berries become dwarfed, and sour or rotten. Of all such baneful visitations

none has ranged so virulently in later times as the *oïdium* epidemic. Like the potato distemper, however, this was not a new disease, though formerly but little noticed, being then confined within narrow limits. The perils and contingencies here adverted to will serve to show how many minute circumstances have to be considered in the selection and cultivation of the vine ; and it is surprising how much the character and excellence of the produce depend upon causes which often appear so trifling as to be almost beneath notice.

During a long succession of ages, the art of wine-making was conducted on undefined and empirical rules, and the false notions of elementary philosophy, so prevalent in primitive times, rendered abortive all attempts to fix the theory on a sound and satisfactory basis. To Lavoisier must be accorded the merit of having first pointed out the true principles on which it is to be explained. The labours of his successors have confirmed his speculations, and the doctrine of fermentation has attained all the precision requisite for practical use. On so subtle and difficult a subject, indeed, an approximation to the truth is the most that can be expected : the primary cause of fermentation, as with other chemical agencies, will probably always remain a mystery ; and we must rest satisfied with a knowledge of the principal conditions on which it depends, and by which the qualities of its products are mainly influenced. Whence then, it may be asked, arise the difficulties attendant on a true solution ? A question which, in a paper read before a Viticultural Congress at Lyons, M. Pasteur thus proceeds to answer :—

“ There are few who have not noticed, more or less consciously, that the delicious flavour of a ripe grape differs materially from that of the must which is made of it. The very perfume of the must has a peculiarity not found in the parent fruit. Indeed, the farther we withdraw from the moment when the berry is plucked from its stem, the greater is the difference manifest between the grape out of, and the grape inside of the butt of the vintner, independently even of the effect of the natural fermentation of the must, the explanation of which may be taken as follows :—When a bunch of grapes is severed from the vine, life

is not cut off in the interior of the berries. The most ordinary observation teaches us that a number of physical and chemical processes go on in the cells of all our domestic fruits after they have been gathered from the tree which bore them. Acids, tannin, and essences little known, which impart to them their flavour, undergo various transformations, while simultaneously saccharine forms in large quantities. Subsequently, the character of the phenomenon again changes; then ensue symptoms of immaturity, of bruises, and other casual conditions. Such phenomena, peculiar to the interior of the fruits and organs of which we speak, always correspond to certain profound changes in the external atmosphere. Accurate observations have enabled us to ascertain that a fruit, such as a bunch of grapes, suspended in the air we breathe, modifies it incessantly. Oxygen is absorbed by the grape, and a nearly equal volume of carbonic acid is at the same time evolved. On the fruit being crushed and left in a vat to ferment, the mass will be quickly involved in carbonic acid gas, lose saccharine, seem more acid, and be charged with natural alcohol proportionately. Forthwith the phenomena of which we have spoken manifest themselves, and it is thus that the must acquires the more exact vinous savour, odour, and true grape character that distinguishes it."

In the process of fermentation, too, the acid elements exert a powerful influence, by which grape-juice poor of acids will never acquire a proper degree of perfection. Its sugar will never be completely decomposed, and, under the influence of azotic elements, will thus retain a permanent danger to the preservation of the wine. Such transformations of the free sugar in wine are the chief cause of its early deterioration, as well as the source of frequent disease and acetic propensity. All other substances evolved in the must, as tartrates, tannin, resinous or mucilaginous compounds, which represent the solid extracts of the vinous ferment, contribute more or less to the bouquet and flavour, as well as to the hygienic properties of the wine. The effect, however, of some of the salts on the ferment, more especially of certain tartrates, is sometimes favourable, and yet at other times of an injurious character; and this depends on the appropriate or ex-

cessive proportions in which they meet during the process of fermentation.

The temperature most favourable to vinous fermentation appears to be 65° of Fahrenheit: below that point it is languid; above, it becomes violent; and at a very high or very low temperature its action ceases altogether. The principal results of the fermentative process are the production of alcohol by the decomposition of the sugar, and the separation of the mucilage and extractive matter of the must in the form of lees. Whether any other important chemical changes take place has not been perfectly ascertained, but as the wine has often a flavour totally different from the grape of which it was made, it may be assumed that some of the other constituents enter into new combinations, governed by the peculiarity of the fruit and the particular mode of conducting the fermentation. Wine while yet in the must is retained in open vessels, the more subtle part being then in such abundance and force as not to admit of confinement in close ones, at which time it appears troubled, thick, and feculent. All its parts or elements are now put in motion and violently agitated, so that the whole liquid mass seems to boil like water in a caldron. This tumult having for the most part subsided, the must is transferred to close vessels, there to be further defecated by a continuance of subdued fermentation. Wines when made in vessels so closed as merely to allow a slow and gradual escape of the carbonic acid gas, are commonly of a more generous quality and of a higher flavour than such as are fermented in open vats, and in general the process is more prompt and lively in proportion to the bulk of the leavening mass. In a cask it proceeds more slowly than in a vat, but the alcohol and aroma of the wine are better preserved. Large vessels are to be preferred when the weather is cold, or the grapes either too green or too ripe.

The juice of the grape, as ascertained by chemical analysis, consists of the following principal ingredients; viz. a considerable portion of water and sugar, a quantity of mucilage, some tannin, acidulated tartrate of potash, tartrate of lime, phosphate of magnesia, muriate of soda, and sulphate of potash. Besides

these, certain kinds contain gallic acid, and in all wines a portion of malic acid, and some traces of citric acid, may be perceived ; but in the best wines the quantity is inconsiderable, and is generally in an inverse ratio to that of the saccharine principle, or alcohol. Tartar is the real essential salt of wine, in which it long remains latent, until getting more attenuated and disengaged, it is gradually separated from the body of the wine, and deposited on the circumferences of the cask in which it is kept. This is a real crystallization of the natural salts of wine eliminated in the process of fermentation, and is never produced but when the liquor is kept in a state of rest. A much larger quantity of it is separated from the strong and austere wines than from the rich or blander kinds, in which the oily and spirituous parts prevail more than the saline. On this account the former, while young, retain a harsh and repulsive taste, until the superfluous tartar is fully disengaged ; whilst the latter continue to be heavy, luscious, and vapid until the oily and spirituous elements become more dispersed and subdued. Free acid in wine is a necessary result of its fermentation. Its presence is likewise necessary for the evolution of the bouquet, the agreeableness of the wine, and for its wholesomeness. It is therefore a popular error to denounce absolutely the presence of all acidity in wine. Stalks of grapes, when infused with the must, act as a powerful leaven, and augment the potency of the wine ; but to the lighter kinds they often impart an ungenial asperity, by reason of the tannin and vegetable extract which they contain. In the preparation of Port wines they are always thus used, and where the saccharine principle predominates they contribute to the strength of the wine, but not otherwise.

The saccharine matter secreted in the grape differs materially from the sugar obtained from the cane, and is therefore fittingly called grape-sugar. In dry wines this natural element has been entirely decomposed ; in sweet wines a portion of the sugar remains in its original state. Some growths are distinguished by a high perfume and grateful aromatic flavour ; others by their rough and astringent taste. Quality must necessarily vary according to the nature of the seasons. In a cold year the fruit

will not attain its proper maturity, and be deficient in flavour and saccharine matter; hence the wine it yields will be comparatively weak and harsh, and liable to ropiness and acerbity. When the season is rainy the produce will be increased, but it will be poor and insipid, and will generally contain an excess of malic acid, which imparts a peculiar flavour, always most perceptible in wines that generate but little alcohol. High winds and fogs are always injurious to the vine. In 1816 the grapes in many of the vine districts of central Europe were left ungathered from the badness of the weather, the fruit, to the month even of November, remaining rotten and neglected.

All wines possess a peculiar aroma or perfume, which constitutes one of their most valued properties. The smell and taste which distinguish them from all other fermented liquids arise from an oily, volatile, and combustible acid, known as *œnanthic ether*. The peculiar aroma or perfume is sometimes dependent upon very recondite causes, as instanced in the finer wines of Burgundy. In many cases it is acquired from age, and appears to be derived from subtle chemical developments distinct from any change in the combination of the proper elements,—perhaps connected with the formation of some kind or variety of ether; whilst in others, it is influenced by the special quality of the grape, as in the Frontignan and muscadine wines. The colour of wine is almost always derived from the husks of the grape, for the pulp even of the blackest fruit is, with very few exceptions, equally colourless with that of the white or green varieties; and the lighter or darker shades it acquires rest on the greater or smaller quantity of purple skins allowed in the process of fermentation. Grapes sent to the wine-press without their stems produce a wine of but little durability.

The natural acid contained in wine constitutes a very important element. A wine without any acidulous flavour is poor, flat, and insipid. Another function of the vinous acids is their contribution to its bouquet, effected by their union with the alcohol produced in the fermentative action; and they further aid in the formation of certain ethers, which render to the several vintages their distinctive flavour and quality. A proper degree

of acidity makes every wine refreshing and agreeable, and the most appropriate for strengthening the powers of digestion, for satisfying the exigency of thirst, and for promoting the healthy action of the whole system.

The chief product of the vinous fermentation is the alcohol, which may be separated from the wine in a pure state by the process of distillation. The strong growths of the south of Europe give the largest amount, which yield nearly one-fourth of proof spirit. Whenever the primary fermentation has been deficient, all wines will retain a sweeter taste than is natural to them in a recent true vinous state ; and unless a further fermentation is promoted by their lying longer on their own lees, they will never attain their proper strength and character, but run into repeated and ineffectual fermentative action, and soon degenerate into a liquor of an acetous kind. When a sufficient degree of maturity has been thus attained, the wine is freed from the lees by being racked into a clean cask. Though the liquor may possess no longer a saccharine taste, yet a portion of the sugar will generally be found to remain undecomposed ; this will be acted upon by the extractive matter which still exists in solution, and a disengagement of carbonic acid gas, with a fresh deposit of sediment, will ensue. By degrees these movements will be less perceptible, and in the course of time they will entirely cease. These changes may be accelerated by various artificial methods, especially by the agitation of the lees, which always retain a portion of fermentative matter, and by the assistance of heat. Hence we may comprehend the reason why certain strong and austere kinds are so much improved and mellowed by being exported on the lees to a warm climate, while the lighter and more delicate sorts, making little deposit, are mostly injured by being made to undergo a similar process, or even by the motion occasioned by their transfer to any considerable distance. In some points of view, the acetous fermentation engendered in unsound wine may be considered a continuance of the vinous. Both are dependent on the presence of the same leaven, and on a certain degree of heat, and both are accompanied by agitation of the fermenting mass, and by a consider-

able evolution of caloric. In the one case the component parts of the sugar enter into new combinations, and form carbonic acid and alcohol; while, in the other, they resume part of the oxygen which had been previously given out, and are changed into vinegar. Fruits of all kinds are little else than highly flavoured ether mixtures of starch, sugar, and acid. Wines and beer chemically differ from fruit only by containing alcohol instead of starch and undecomposed sugar; and the weak spirit and sugar of half-fermented beer and effervescing kinds of wine more readily occasion over acidity and heartburn than fully fermented wine or pure spirit.

When a vintager holds land producing fruit of different qualities, he will sometimes mingle his grapes to obtain a wine of a more desirable character, careful, however, to reject such as are inferior or unripe. A cloudy wine of little merit would be the result of a good mingled with a commoner growth. If it be his object to obtain a dry and full-flavoured wine, he will gather the grapes as soon as they have acquired their proper maturity, and before they begin to shrink and wither on the stalk; or if he wish to have a very brisk sort, he may collect them before they are perfectly ripe; but if a sweet wine is desired, he will postpone the vintage to the latest moment. Again, if in its fabrication there should be a deficiency of the saccharine element, a generous wine will not be produced; but if the sugar and other essential qualities present in the grapes when under the press should be tolerably proportioned, and the fruit free from decay and extraneous matter, a sound, wholesome beverage may be expected. When the grape is rich in saccharine mucilage, and the fruit itself perfect and well matured, a wine of the highest character and quality will be the result, if proper judgment and attention be exercised in the process of fermentation. Due regard, moreover, must be had, not only for the ripest fruit in general, but also for some of the finest and choicest grapes in the vineyard; and if the production of 'most noble wine' is the object in view, only the ripest berries must be selected from each cluster. But the care of the manufacturer in search of eminence extends still farther. It is not the same thing whether the grapes

are brought to the wine-press by a sweltering hand, or clipped by a clean pair of scissors. It is just as unadvisable to cut off the bunches and pile them in heaps on the ground ; for all that come in contact with anything impure acquire thereby a tainted flavour, and it is just by the mode of gathering and collecting his fruit that the vintager best exhibits his intelligence or his weakness. With the absence or deficiency of these qualifications, and a predominance of any property adverse to vinous purity in the grapes when under the action of the press, come secondary and inferior samples proportionate to the uncongenial elements contained in the fruit. As sugar, tartarous and malic acid, vegetable pulp, and aqueous deposit form the constituents composing the grape, according as these ingredients vary relatively with each other, so will be the differences in quality, flavour, and odour when converted into wine.

The aggregate quantity of wine annually raised on the European continent is very considerable. The production of France alone exceeds nine hundred million gallons ; the empire of Austria (including Hungary) contributes five hundred millions, to which the rest of Germany adds about forty-five millions more. The statistics of other countries are less certain, but the produce of Spain and Portugal has been estimated at seven hundred million gallons, and that of Italy and Greece at one hundred and twenty millions in addition,—a bounteous supplement to the ever-recurring natural productions that so largely minister to the gratification and sustentation of man.

The powder or bloom seen on the grape in its riper state, is regarded as a token that its cultivation has been carefully superintended. When in flower the vine exhales an agreeable odour, and there is no part of the plant which is not applicable to some useful purpose. In Switzerland the leaves are applied to medicinal or surgical uses. In cuts and green wounds they are esteemed a sovereign remedy : decoctions of the juice of the leaves are used in poultices with great advantage. When boiled they yield an agreeable tea, but more astringent than that of China : it is much liked, and thought very bracing to the nervous system. The prunings, crushed and pressed, give excellent vinegar. The

leaves and tendrils bruised, and the juice fermented, afford a pleasant light drink of a vinous character. The leaves form also excellent food for cattle when fodder is scarce, but they are of too much value in the vineyard to be often spared for that purpose. In such cases they should not be taken until they begin to fall off. They are then collected, put in a dry loft, and sometimes salted, pressed, and left to ferment. In some places they are alternated with layers of straw, and then form still more excellent fodder. After the vintage, animals are often turned into the grounds to browse on the leaves. By the Romans, Pliny tells us, (b. xiv. 23,) portions of the vine were eaten : the tender tops of the shoots were taken off and boiled, and then pickled in vinegar and brine. The young tendrils possess an agreeable acid quality, owing to the acetic and tartaric acids they contain. Vine branches furnish potash and salts when burned ; basket-work is made from them ; and the bark is used for bands to tie the vines to the props.

The must of the South is employed in making a rich confection with citron and aromatic sweets. The murk is greedily eaten by herbivorous animals : it is given dry, or mingled with other fodder. Fowls are remarkably fond of it. In some places it is given fresh from the vat to cows and mules, but in that state it intoxicates and injures them. After the vintage, it is customary with some growers to supply the dovescots freely with murk, the pips being eagerly devoured by the birds : where fuel is scarce, it is often dried and burned, being laid up for winter use, like tan in some parts of England. When in a state of fermentation it is useful as a bath for rheumatism, by exciting perspiration. It is said to be a specific for the rickets, used in this way. Fractured limbs, placed for a longer or shorter time, as may be necessary, in a vessel of murk, whilst yet hot from fermentation, are said to consolidate more rapidly than by any other auxiliar. Even the pips or seeds of the grape are convertible to useful purposes besides that of feeding pigeons. Separated from the murk by washing, and carefully dried, they are ground in an oil-mill : the produce is very superior to that obtained from nuts, either for eating or burning in lamps ; no bad odour accompanies the

use, and it burns as bright as olive oil, without any smoke. The murk, macerated in water and distilled, yields brandy of a secondary quality.

Nor is this all. Men can live and work on grapes and bread. The peasantry of France, Spain, and Italy make many a satisfying meal in this way, and of the wholesomeness of the diet there can be no doubt. Medical men, it is well known, constantly recommend the use of grapes for their fever-stricken patients. Scarcely any plant can rival the vine in beauty and grace of formation: as a covering for bare walls, or as a screen for shade and shelter, it is a climber of the first rank. To sit under one's own vine has, in all ages, been lauded as the summit of rural ambition, an emblem of peace, a symbol of plenty, and the embodiment of content. Although but seldom realized in its better aspect under the variable temperature incidental to our insular position, neither its leaden skies or erratic climate forbid its growth over the larger portion of Britain. In many districts its fruit will ripen more or less perfectly; in almost all it would mature sufficiently to be valuable for eating, or to enrich the dessert. Even green grapes are estimable for making tarts, for conversion into vinegar or other domestic compounds. The fully ripened berries find an eager welcome everywhere: no one tires of them, the cultivation is not difficult, and a ready market exists in most localities for any surplus growth. A flourishing vine on its gable end or sunny front has paid the rent of many a labourer's cottage. Of such fruit there need be no apprehension of an excessive supply; neither are ripe grapes so perishable as most other fruits. If severed from the vine with a small portion of wood attached, and placed in bottles of water, or even suspended in a dry room, well-matured bunches will retain their quality for many weeks, and sometimes even improve by keeping. Besides these valuable properties it may be further noticed, that grapes not otherwise appropriated can be readily converted into a cheap and palatable beverage for home use, which would be much better than nothing but beer, cider, or besotting gin. Every cottager, indeed, should feel emulous of raising a vine, and all who possess ten inches of mould outside the walls of his dwelling

can do it if he would set himself earnestly to the task, and derive both pleasure and profit in the fruition. The stems and branches, moreover, are endued with great vitality, especially when fresh and ruddy ; yet in the frosty days of winter an extensive vine-ground full of their prostrate, crusty-looking, long, tortuous limbs might well be mistaken for a collection of fossil-serpents. Who would suppose, in the face of so bare and moribund an aspect, that therein were slumbering myriads of future bounteous clusters, redolent of wine, and song, and future glee ?

It will hardly be matter of surprise that a plant possessing so many beneficial properties should be invested with superstitious and mythical associations. Not only do the leaves decorate the hair of the village girls in some of the southern wine districts, but the mode of plucking them under certain spells is thought to discover to the credulous lasses the truth or falsehood of their lovers. In Germany, on the other hand, the vine is venerated for its benign and curative virtues, the grape being there esteemed as an efficacious remedy for pneumonia, bronchitis, and other affections of the respiratory organs. Diseases of the heart and liver or other internal complaints, gout, rheumatism, and even Bright's disease and tubercular consumption in its earlier stages, are also claimed by the German doctors as coming within the scope of its sanitary influence. For a skilful administration of the 'grape cure,' as it is called, suitable hospitaliers for the reception of patients are provided in various localities. Meran, in the Tyrol, and Vevay and Montreux on the lake of Geneva, have a high reputation ; but in Germany, Dürkheim, near Mannheim on the Rhine, is the place which enjoys most fame, persons coming from all parts of the country at vintage time to try its healing powers, and always with more or less success. By the regimen there pursued the grapes are taken three times a-day, at the same hours at which mineral waters are usually drunk in Germany,—before breakfast, at eleven o'clock or two hours before dinner, and at from five to six in the evening. To a stranger the sight is an amusing one, and unlike anything to be met with elsewhere. In the adjoining garden tables are ranged on one side under the trees, which are covered with large osiers full

of the species used in the cure. Numbers of people are seen walking up and down, each with a small black basket of grapes in his hand, and eating with great rapidity, as if doing it for a wager. On the tables where the grapes are sold there is usually a small grape-press, a miniature of the one used in the process of wine-making, for the purpose of squeezing out the juice, which is sometimes preferred to the fruit itself. The 'munching' one's own grapes is by no means essential to the cure ; but the liquor expressed, when used by persons whose teeth are too susceptible to the acidity of the fruit, is so unlike the grapes themselves, and so unpleasant, that few persons prefer it unless obliged to do so. The quantity of fruit eaten by each patient during the course of treatment, usually occupying from three to six weeks, graduates from 4 to 8, or even 9 lbs. daily, but everything depends upon its degree of ripeness.

Whether the grape as a remedy is really as efficacious as its advocates suppose or not, a free use of such fruit cannot be far wrong, and, acting as an alterative, might prove beneficial in many cases of visceral obstruction or derangement ; for of all the vegetable juices, none seems so well adapted to the constitutional exigencies of man. In all times of serious sickness, and more especially in severe cases of fever, when the system is put to its severest strain, and its strength reduced to the lowest ebb, Nature, with unerring instinct, indicates its real wants, and grapes are often the only refreshment welcome to parched and thirsty lips. The 'grape-cure' may be carried to excess by its own practitioners, but there is considerable truth in it, much good and little harm can be done by it, and it is regarded with favour by many of the most sensible physicians in Germany. The therapeutic properties of the grape appear also to have obtained early recognition in France, where a lively sense of its virtues still lingers among certain portions of her people. In the autumn of the year numbers among the citizens of Paris undergo a diet of grapes, eating little else for three weeks or a month. Used thus, grapes have all the effects of the Cheltenham waters. "They open the body," are the words of Lemery, physician to Louis XIV., "create an appetite, are very nourishing, and qualify

the sharp action of the heart. They agree with every age and constitution, provided they be not used in too great excess."

The preservation of ripe grapes throughout the winter with the least amount of trouble has ever been an important matter to the British grower. Every cultivator knows what a tedious and costly task it is to keep the fruit hanging on the parent stem during the cold season after its maturity. Many recent publications profess to give directions for regulating vineries so as to preserve the fruit unplucked and unblemished for a considerable time, though they are not always intelligible or easily practicable. A novel and ingenious method of preserving grapes fresh and sound through the winter months when severed from the vine has been successfully practised in France, and accepted as a great boon by some of its best gardeners. The mode adopted is thus described by Mr. Robinson, in his suggestive and profusely illustrated book on *The Parks and Gardens of Paris* :—

"The grapes are cut with a considerable portion of the stem attached, much as in pruning the vine ; each shoot is then inserted in a small narrow-necked bottle containing water, and placed firmly along a suitable rack, so that the bunches hang just clear of one another. To effect this in the simplest manner, provide two pretty stout uprights, each with three legs. To these nail, on both sides alternately, an inch and a half apart, two strong horizontal laths, to act as bearers for each line of bottles, with suitable indentions cut in them to receive the heel and neck of the bottle in an inclined position, so as to hold the stem and a full bunch firmly. Thus a grape-room of any number of rows may be formed, walking-space being left between each wall of grapes, arranged tier over tier on a separate frame. In places where the growth is not large enough to require a special apartment for their keeping, part of a fruit-room might be adopted, or even a store-room or dry cellar, especially as it is not necessary to construct a place expressly for the purpose, or to adopt means either to warm or ventilate it, as the grapes keep much better without that trouble. The insertion of the vine-stem into the water-bottle is all that is needed, and as the bottles used are little more than wide enough at the neck to admit the stalk, the evaporating surface exposed is very small. . . In case the water provided should at any time fall below the bases of the vine-shoots, it is simply necessary to add a little more; and a pinch of animal charcoal

placed in each bottle will obviate any tendency to impurity from possible slight organic deposits.

“This improved method was originally practised on a large scale at Thomery, and the result was a gain to that village of from 100,000 to 150,000 francs per annum. Grapes thus treated cut in the month of October have been preserved sound and unblemished until the following April or May, and in some instances even still later.”

The influence of the seasons upon the vine, as upon most other productions of the soil, is a primary cause of plenty or scarcity. A cold wet season is unproductive, and the grapes prove insipid; winds too dry are detrimental, and much rain when the plant is in flower causes paralysis and dropping off of the berry before maturity; spring frosts and fogs are injurious, but autumnal frosts are far more prejudicial; they disorganize the ripening fruit, and sometimes even stint the measure of the succeeding crop. The most favoured spots, moreover, are not invariably exempt from the vicissitudes that occasionally affect both the plant and the vintage. Despite the care and assiduity of the cultivator, canker, plethora, rot, paralysis, mildew, and several other diseases at times assail the vine, whilst the seasonal and other accidents tending to a deterioration of the fruit are numerous. But besides these endemic distempers, the vine is liable to frequent injury from the casual inroads of other enemies. Not only do the plants suffer at times from the meteorological influences of frost and fog, of rain and hail, of blighting winds and excessive rain, but quadrupeds and insects equally prey on the juices either of the fruit or the stalk. The stealthy fox invades the vineyard to feast on the grapes; the wild boar and the badger equally covet its fruit; and worst of all, the trusted sentinel—the domestic dog, sometimes turns traitor, and his depredations have been known to ruin the crop of a whole season. Birds, such as the linnet, thrush, starling, blackbird, and a few others, particularly birds of passage coming in whole flocks, often make heavy ravages. On the other hand, many of them effect much good by destroying myriads of insects, which nestle and prey on the fibre and sap. The snail and slug work their mischief during the silence of night: as the grapes ripen, the

wasp and the fly pilfer their sweetness by day. Strong winds are mostly deleterious: they dry up the plant, the grapes, and the soil, hardening the latter, especially in clayey districts, with a thick crust, which prevents a ready access to the roots both of air and water. The insect family, too, which infest the trunk are rapacious and innumerable. Some dwell on the stem, and others in the roots and leaves. The common and the vine may-bug are two of these; but chief among such veritable scourges are four others, named respectively *Cochylis omphaciella*, (grape-moth), *Pyralis vitis*, *Eumolpus vitis*, and *Phylloxera vastatrix*. These insects, like others of their kind, have four grades or stages of existence,—the ova, the caterpillar, the chrysalis, and the moth. They are rarely destructive except in the second state,—the caterpillar. Excepting with entomologists the *pyralis* differs but slightly from the *cochylis*. The *eumolpus*, however, is more injurious than the *pyralis*. It differs in two principal respects: it is a coleopter, not a moth; its larvæ are also apodal, and winter in the earth; and lastly, when in the winged state it assails severely the leaves and fruit of the plant. But the greatest injury it inflicts is by its deadly action on the roots while in the form of a maggot in its winter station, and often by its ravenous incisions it riddles the plant so incurably, as to leave no alternative save a prompt uprooting. The *phylloxera*, like the *eumolpus*, passes the winter season underground, its mission seeming to be the destruction of the grape-vine by impairing the vitality of its root, in a similar yet still more virulent manner than that of the *eumolpus*. The *phylloxera*, more commonly known as the grape-root gall-louse, must be regarded as one of the most formidable of the vine's antagonists, and so marked have been its ravages in the vineyards of France and America, as to awaken among owners and cultivators grave apprehensions respecting the future welfare of the grape. But the vine, unhappily, is further exposed to another and still more insidious danger, which, from its exterminating tendencies, will too surely exact from its future cultivator an anxious and watchful supervision.

The fifth decade of the present century will long be memor-

able, from the irruption of a destructive malady sufficiently remarkable for its extent, duration, and severity to form an epoch in the annals of the vine. It is not a little singular, that the origin of a pestilence which has wrought so much mischief and loss throughout the wine-growing countries of Europe, should be attributed to a locality where the vine may be said to be almost of artificial growth. The simple fact of the *oidium* having been first noticed on vines cultivated in hot-houses by Mr. Tucker of Margate, in 1845, has led to the supposition that it was originally engendered by the high and humid temperature of the English conservatory ; but the symptoms appear to have been detected on the banks of the Rhône by M. Dupuis as early as 1834 ; and there is reason, moreover, for thinking that the blight, although recurring with unprecedented virulence, is not a new form of disease, for there are documents extant in the archives of Spain, a century old, which describe a distemper that would seem, both in character and effect, to be identical with it. Be that as it may, the derangement in the present instance was first marked by the exudation of white efflorescences, which speedily covered the stem ; the grapes were next attacked and hindered from swelling, which occasioned the skin to burst, and they quickly became rotten, and dropped off. Great fears were at first entertained lest this mysterious visitation should exercise a prejudicial influence on the public health ; and many deaths from severe choleric, diarrhœa, and similar complaints having been ascribed to it, the careful attention of botanical professors of chemistry was directed to an investigation of the seat and action of the disease, who ascertained that the white, dusty excrescence was a microscopic fungus belonging to the parasitical plants of the class *oidio*, and being of a new species was named *oidium Tuckeri*. This fungus attacks the hinder parts of the stalk, but rarely injures the stem. The leaves and tendrils also become more or less affected, the green colour becoming paler, and emitting an offensive odour. From the moment the plants are attacked the fruit and leafage cease to grow, and soon afterwards the grapes will burst, shrivel, and decay. It was conjectured that the fungus was occasioned by the puncture of an insect, and its presence

was actually detected in the seed of the grape, and on the reverse side of the leaf. The grub established itself on the leaves, and formed a sort of film resembling cobwebs, blistering the upper part of the leaf. Its birth is, however, thought to be subsequent to the invasion of the *oidium*, and may be consequent on the altered state of the vegetable portions of the vine. From these well-ascertained facts, it may be safely considered that this novel malady is a true botanical epidemic, like the cholera and other atmospheric visitations, the latent causes of which remain yet unsolved. It did not, however, prove in any way inimical to human life, and animals and birds, fed on the diseased grapes, seeds, and leaves, thrived well, and continued quite healthy. Wine, too, though made from fruit in the worst state of distemper, produced no bad effects ; but the vintages generally did not keep well, the stronger sorts, even, evincing an early disposition to acescency.

The *oidium* plague first manifested itself in 1850, and taking its rise in the French department of the Seine, it rapidly extended its baneful course over the whole European continent, retaining for five successive years, with more or less severity, its withering and ruinous sway. Numerous remedies were resorted to, but a dressing of sulphur was for a long time considered the only efficacious application. This antidote was first promulgated in 1848 by Mr. Kyle, an English horticulturist, and its success was at once fully established : it acts chemically on the fungus, neutralizing and decomposing it in the course of nineteen or twenty hours ; and although instances of failure have been occasionally noticed, they were more attributable to negligence or a niggardly application of the remedy than to any want of efficacy. It should be applied directly after the first contraction of the shoots at a temperature below 96° Fahr. in the open air, and not deferred until the disease has too far manifested itself. Subsequent experiments, however, show that powdered charcoal possesses similar remedial virtues, attributable, probably, to its absorbent and antiseptic properties.

For the conservatory another mode of application has been successfully practised, and notably so in the case of a fine crop

of grapes in a most luxuriant and apparently healthy state, which, in the short space of twelve hours, August 1850, was completely covered as with a shower of snow,—fruit, leaves, and branches being alike affected, and was thus treated: Sulphur mixed with water to the consistence of paint was applied with a brush made from shreds of Russia matting (which is softer and deposits more of the mixture than one of bristles) to the whole of the bark, leaf, stalks, and the stem of the upper part of the bunch, which may be done by a careful hand without any injury to the fruit. The effect produced on the vines by this treatment was evident in a few hours: the efflorescence was completely checked, and the final product was a fine sample of well-swelled fruit, and the wood and foliage perfect to the last. The interior walls of the vinery should at the same time be washed with hot lime, mixed with an equal portion of sulphur, and the house kept for a few days rather close; this helping in a great measure to correct and purify the internal atmosphere.

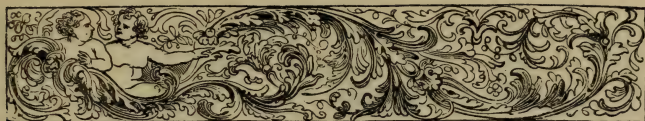
Having spread its sway over France by 1853, this destructive epidemic overran the entire basin of the Mediterranean Sea and the whole of Europe; and subsequently resuming its ravages in North America, it assumed the proportions of an exterminating pestilence, which is thus minutely described by Dr. Karl Müller:—

“Its hateful work begins simultaneously on all the green parts of the plant, including the young tendrils not yet converted into wood. A slight discolouration is the earliest symptom. In a little while it assumes the appearance of a mealy coating, as though the green portions had been powdered. Its most characteristic development is on its leaves. Long tufted wens spread over the surface to devour their substance. The diseased part dwindles, swells, and bloats, dries up, and turns into a large russet blotch. This would do the vine but little damage if the same phenomenon were not repeated on the stems of the grapes, and on the berries themselves. A mouldy cincture, which begins its course among such of the younger knots as are nearest to the roots, overruns them. Ere long it assumes a blackish hue, the development of the grapes is arrested, the berries assailed by the distemper remain stationary at their stage of growth when first attacked; none of them take colour, none ripen, many burst, others rot. The question often asked, though still imperfectly answered, is, What is the cause of the scourge? It is difficult to decide whether the furry tissue of the

diseased spots can be called fungus, or whether it can be compared with violent eruptions on the skins of animals. The term is not in question here, since what is called the tissue of fungi is undeniably the consequence, and not the cause of disintegration in the vine. It has a large kindred of similar incrustations formed every year on the leaves of many plants, and even of trees, which exert an equally deleterious effect on the cellular tissue. How to suppress it is still an unsolved problem. The million of francs offered for its extermination in France has never been claimed, and is a prize that still awaits the grasp of some inspired naturalist. In the probable case that the sap of the vine is in process of decomposition, the application of flowers of sulphur, ashes, lye, gypsum, and other astringents when the disease first makes its appearance may subdue the rising fungus, yet will hardly restore vigorous health to the plant, which must be cured from within. The most effectual course appears to be to bleed the vine, in order to stimulate the free formation of new sap, as successfully practised in some parts of Savoy. It is not improbable that this malignant outbreak is only a consequence of the luxury of modern civilization, and that it will disappear in the same measure as the culture of the vine accommodates itself to the nature of the plant, in moderating the proportion of stimulating manure, and a more perfect mode of training. Physicians have nowhere eradicated the germs of cholera; yet the fatal triumphs of that inscrutable disease have taught the nations the golden lesson of adopting more simple and natural social habits; for if assailed, none suffered who resolutely eschewed the poison of enervating excess. The same thing may prove true of the vine."

The loss occasioned by the ravages of this mysterious malady was intensely felt by incalculable numbers: in many districts the failure was complete; vines were uprooted, and fears were prevalent as to its permanent influence on the welfare of the grape. There are fair grounds, however, for believing that a recurrence of the distemper would not be attended with the same extent of evil; and the one benefit to be gathered from the calamity seems to be, a certainty that, with the removal of defective and exhausted vines, the young plantations promise well for a vigorous and lasting renovation.





SECTION II.

“Let me embrace thee, good old chronicle,
That hast so long walked hand in hand with Time.”

Troilus and Cressida.

The Vintages of the Antients.



UCH care and attention appear to have been bestowed on the management of their vineyards by the antients, who were familiar with the most approved rules both for their culture and treatment. They were aware how much the health of the plant and the qualities of the grape are liable to be affected

by different soils and aspects, and were at great pains in choosing a proper situation for their plantations. They condemned lands composed of stiff unctuous clay, or subject to much humidity, selecting such as were not too thin, but light and sufficiently porous to admit the requisite moisture, and allow a free expansion of the roots. The advantages of soils formed of a chalky or marly loam, or composed of rocky *débris*, were not overlooked; but the preference appears to have been given to the black crumbling soil of the Campania, which consisted of decomposed tufa. Of different exposures, a southern aspect was deemed the most favourable; and the superior flavour of wines grown on the sides of hills, compared with those raised on the plain, was fully recognised.

The vine was sufficiently esteemed to be classed by ancient naturalists among the trees, on account of the remarkable size it was sometimes known to attain. In some of the Latin provinces it was able to stand of itself without any external support, drawing in its drooping branches, and making up in thickness for its stunted proportions. At Metapontum the temple of Juno long stood supported by pillars formed of the

vine, and at Massilia there was a famous patera of the same material. In the city of Populonium there stood a statue of Jupiter carved from the trunk of a single vine, and which for ages remained proof against all decay. It is notorious, indeed, that no wood in existence can surpass it in durability. The varieties of the vine early known were numerous, above fifty different sorts being described with sufficient minuteness to enable us to estimate the relation in which they stand to our modern kinds. Of these the very highest rank appears to have been accorded to the Aminean, (of which there were five varieties,) on account of the richness and flavour of its fruit, and the body and durability of the wine, which improved greatly with age. Next in excellence stood the Nomentum, the wood of which was red. Although still more prolific than the Aminean, the grapes produced less wine than usual, in consequence of the extraordinary quantity of husk and lees they deposited. The Eugenian, Helveolan, Spionian, and several others, were also esteemed for their abundance, and the choice qualities of the wine which they yielded. One of the black-grape vines was called *inerticula*, and by some *sobria*. The wine from it Pliny describes as remarkably good, and more particularly so when old; "but though strong," he adds, "it is productive of no ill effects; and, indeed, is the only wine that will not cause intoxication." (b. xiv. c. 4). That no pains or expense was spared by the antients in procuring the best species of plant is evidenced in the accounts which they give of the effects of their transplantation, as well as in the system of management adopted in those days for preparing and dressing the ground; whilst the methods pursued in pruning, grafting, and general superintendence, are marked by equal skill and discernment. They were the first to notice that some vines were more remarkable for their grapes than for their wines, instancing *ambrosia*, and some others. That their views were occasionally erroneous may be readily imagined; still, considering the infancy of physical science at that period, they evidently possessed a very ample knowledge of the subject. Indeed, it may well be doubted whether any branch of agriculture has remained so stationary, or been so little influenced by

the improvements of more recent times ; for, throughout a great part of Europe, the ancient usages with respect to the treatment of the vine are still observed to linger, and it is only in those countries where commerce has led to the extension of useful inventions, and furnished a stimulus to increased exertion, that better methods have prevailed.

From the early dawn of civilization, wine is mentioned by historians and chroniclers, and seems to have been coeval with the first products derived from the vegetable kingdom. Grapes soon became a useful portion of human aliment, and a reviving drink was found in their newly expressed juices. These, again, by spontaneous fermentation acquiring a vinous quality, supplied a yet more grateful liquor, which strengthened and exhilarated the flagging spirits after the heat and labour of the day. Inspired by its genial influence the pristine poets celebrate its praise in graceful numbers ; the Father of Song extolled it as nectar fit for the gods : his heroes were animated by it in the council and in the field, and Nestor was not more remarkable for his length of years than for his copious draughts of old wine. The greatest philosophers, legislators, and physicians applaud it when temperately enjoyed, and Plato himself, whilst strictly restraining excess, says nothing more excellent or valuable than wine was ever granted by the gods to mankind. According to ancient records, the first advance made in the formation of vineyards originated with the Egyptians, the facts and rules established by their diligence and observation passing down to the Asiatics and Greeks, who improved them, and carried the art to a higher degree of perfection. Diodorus tells us that the queens of Egypt, besides an allowance of a talent a day for dress, jewels, etc. received the revenues of the city of Anthylla, famous for its vineyards. Wine for social purposes, however, long continued to be very rare, and was used chiefly for libations and other solemnities observed in the worship of the gods. Young men below thirty, and women all their life-time, were at one period forbidden to drink it, unless at sacrifices ; but afterwards, when wine became more plentiful, these restrictions were removed. With increasing facilities new wants and desires arose,

and former laws of abstention were no longer rigidly enforced.—
(*Valerius Maximus*.)

The oldest reliable account relating to a systematic manufacture of wine is given by Mago, a Carthaginian general, who, about 550 years prior to the Christian era, wrote as many as twenty-eight books on husbandry, and the close resemblance between the directions laid down by him and the process practised in after ages is so remarkable, as to justify a brief recapitulation here: "Let the bunches of grapes, quite ripe, and scorched or shrivelled in the sun, when the bad and faulty ones are picked out, be spread on a frame resting on stakes or forks, and covered with a layer of reeds. Place them in the sun, but protect them from the dew at night. When they are quite dry, pluck the grapes from the stalks, throw them into a cask, and make the first must. If they have well drained, put them at the end of six days into a vessel, and press them for the first wine. A second time let them be pounded [trodden] and pressed, adding cold must to the pressing. This second wine is to be placed in a pitched vessel, lest it become sour. After it has remained twenty or thirty days and fermented, rack it into another vessel, and stopping it close immediately, cover it with a skin." That these rules prevailed between five and six hundred years afterwards we have the testimony of Columella, who lived fifty years after our Saviour, for he remarks, in his copious treatise on Roman agriculture, that "Mago gives similar directions for making the best sort of wine as I myself have done."

In warm and low localities the vintage of the antients began towards the end of September, but in most places it was deferred till the following month. As nothing was considered more prejudicial to the quality of the wine than the mixture of unripe with ripe grapes, it was usual to commence with that portion of the vineyard which had attained its fullest maturity, and begin with the early black and purple kinds. Those first collected were thought to yield the largest quantity of must; but the second gathering gave the best wine, and the third the sweetest. In some countries, as in Bithynia and Narbonne, it was customary

to twist the stalks of the grapes and strip off the adjoining vine-leaves, leaving the fruit exposed to the full force of the sun's rays for a period of thirty days prior to the vintage. It was not uncommon among vintagers, with a view to obtain a richer wine, to spread the grapes after gathering on crates to dry for three or four days in the sun. On other occasions, where the grape-juice was deemed too thin and watery for the production of good wine, as was often the case in rainy seasons, it was boiled down to a richer consistence, and a small portion of gypsum added to the residue. Sometimes, indeed, this kind of inspissation was still further protracted, and the boiling prolonged until one-third, one-half, or even two-thirds of the liquor was evaporated.

Dioscorides, among the Greek authors, treated fully the subject of culture, and described minutely the preparation of wine for medical purposes. Cato, Marcus Varro, and Virgil in his *Georgics*, were the most distinguished Roman authorities; whilst Columella, an illustrious cultivator, greatly aided in enlarging and perfecting the system prevailing in his time. Succeeding ages are under no small obligation to his skill and industry, since his valuable and copious work, *De Agricultura*, has preserved for all time a knowledge of the rules and methods adopted by the husbandman and the vintager in the days of Augustus Cæsar. Hippocrates was the first to discern the healing virtues of wine, and he used it successfully in his extensive practice, and especially in regimen and dietetic cases. Galen, also, who was well read in the writings of his predecessors, advocated the free use of wine for medical purposes. His vast knowledge and numberless cures secured him much popular veneration, and a perdurable fame. One of his literary labours records his efforts to investigate and explain, though not very happily, the innate virtues and healing powers of various wines; to which he added several useful precepts for the better diluting the stronger sorts. By this time wine was in much esteem, and extensively administered by physicians as a curative agent, and Pliny, in his *Natural History*, enumerates no less than 216 different maladies for which 'the vine and its fruit' were deemed efficacious remedies, prefacing his statement with these emphatic

words :—"By Hercules ! it is the vine more particularly to which Nature has accorded bountiful medicinal properties, as though she were not contented with her generosity in providing it with such delicious flavours, and perfumes, and essences in its *omphacium* [essential oil], its *enanthe*, and its *massaris*. 'It is to me,' she says, 'that man is indebted for the greater part of his enjoyments ; it is I that produce for him the flowing wine and the trickling oil ; it is I that ripen the date, and other fruits in numbers so varied ; and all this not insisting—like the Earth—on their purchase at the cost of fatigues and labours. No necessity do I create for ploughing by the aid of oxen,—for beating out on the thrashing-floor,—or for bruising under the mill-stone ; and all in order that man may earn his food at some indefinite time by so vast an expenditure of toil ! As for me, all my gifts are presented to him ready prepared, for no anxieties or fatigues do they require ; on the contrary, they offer themselves spontaneously, and even fall to the ground if man should be too indolent to reach them as they hang.' Vying even with herself, Pomona, by her recuperative virtues, has done still more for our practical advantage than for the mere gratification of our pleasures and caprices."

Superstition and mysticism are the common spawn of ignorance and prejudice, and illustrious as the Athenians were from their refined taste, their skill in the fine arts, their sophists and philosophers, it will be scarcely regarded as very wonderful if occult doctrines in a pagan age were not without their earnest advocates. Among the maxims sanctioned by Pliny, he directs that grapes for the richer wines should be dried,—if by night, at the advent of the new moon, or if by day, at full moon. Cato, in his day a man of consummate authority in all practical matters, directs us "Never to deal with timber except when the moon is on the wane, or else at the end of the second quarter : at those periods you may either root up the tree, or fell it as it stands. When you root up the elm, the pine, the nut-tree, or, indeed, any other kind of tree, mind and do so when the moon is on the wane, after mid-day, and when there is no south wind blowing. The next seven days after the full moon are the best of all for

grubbing up a tree." It may, at first, appear somewhat singular that any important meteorological action should be attributed to lunar agency ; but, according to popular tradition and opinions in early times, our satellite is responsible for a variety of influences on the organized world. The circulation of the sap in vegetables, the qualities of grain, the goodness of the vintage, are severally laid to its account ; timber was to be planted and felled, the harvest secured, the juice of the grape expressed, and its subsequent treatment guided and regulated at precise periods, and under circumstances having express relation to the phases of the moon. Nor is its rule, according to ancient belief, restricted to mere physical or organic effects ; it extends its sway over human maladies ; the very marrow of our bones and the weight of our bodies sustain diminution or increase under its influence, and it notably governs mental aberrations. Varro, it is known, seriously recommended, if we would avoid baldness, that the hair of the head should be cut at full moon only ; and the emperor Tiberius always observed the time of the moon's changes before having his hair or his beard trimmed.

If such singular notions were confined to a single creed or particular parts of the world, or prevailed only at particular epochs, they would be entitled to small consideration ; but it is a curious fact, that many of these phantom ideas exist among nations and people so distant and unconnected, that it is impossible not to imagine similar errors to have had a common origin. Astronomers have demonstrated that the moon's gravitation is productive of various phenomena on the surface of our globe, conspicuous among which are the ocean tides ; but popular impulse goes yet further, and claims for our satellite numerous other influences which do not seem to appertain to mere physical affinity or attraction. In France, to this day, pruning commences about the end of February, always at the waning of the moon ; and a maxim prevails with cultivators generally, that wine made between the periods of two moons is never of a good quality, and cannot be bright. The English author of the *Art and Mystery of Vintners and Wine-Coopers* also lays it down as a safe rule, that "the best time to rack wine is in the decrease of the moon,

the wind being at north-east or north-west, but not at south, and the sky serene. . . . The times of the year when wines are observed to be most subject to ferment and fret are midsummer and Allhallows, when our vintners use to rack them from their cross lees; and they choose to do it in the wane of the moon and fair weather, the wind being northerly." Graham, another English writer, in his *Art of making Wine*, circâ 1760, recognises a similar maxim. "If the wines," he tells us, "require racking, the best time to do it is when the wind is in the north and the weather temperate and clear, in the increase of the moon, and when she is under the earth, and not in her full height." M. Toaldo, the celebrated Italian meteorologist, whose mind appears to have been predisposed for the reception of lunar prejudices, attempts to justify these axioms. "The vinous fermentation," he maintains, "can only be carried on in two moons when it begins immediately before the new moon; and, consequently, this being a time when the enlightened side of the moon is turned for the most part from the earth, our atmosphere is deprived of the heat of the lunar rays, and therefore the temperature of the earth is lowered, and the fermentation is less active." To this it may be answered, that the moon's rays do not affect the temperature of the air to the extent of one-thousandth part of a thermometrical degree,* and that the difference of temperature between any two places where the vintage is going on may be many degrees greater at any given moment of time, and yet no one ever supposes that this can determine the quality of the wine.

According to the doctrines of the antients, the fate of the vintage was still more powerfully affected by the influence of a particular star, and moreover one scarcely so bright as to be classed among those of the first magnitude. This stellar enemy of the grape is the one called *Procyon*, in the constellation of the Little Dog.

"Steep your heart in rosy wine,
For see the Dog-star is in view,
Lest by heat and thirst oppress'd,
You should the season's fury rue."—*Alcæus*.

* Dr. Lardner.

Pliny records the opinion, prevalent in his time, that Procyon decided the fate of the vintage, and that its malign influence dried up the grape. "The Dog-star," he says, "rises in the hottest time of the summer, when the sun is entering the first degree of Leo. Who is there that does not know that the vapour of the sun is kindled by its rising? The most powerful effects are felt on the earth from this star. When it rises the seas are troubled, the wines in our cellars ferment, and stagnant waters are set in motion. There is no doubt that dogs, during the whole of this period, are peculiarly disposed to become rabid. . . . There is, moreover, a peculiar influence in the different degrees of certain astronomical signs, as in the autumnal equinox, and also in the winter solstice, when we find that a particular star is connected with the state of the weather. . . . Some, too, are planet-struck, and others, at stated times, are affected in the sinews, the bowels, the head, or the intellect. The white poplar, the olive, and the willow turn their leaves round at the summer solstice. . . . It is certain that the bodies of oysters and of whelks, and of shell-fish generally, are increased in size, and again diminished by the influence of the moon. . . . And so much the more disgraceful is our ignorance, as every one acknowledges that the diseases in the eyes of certain beasts of burden increase and diminish according to the age of the moon."—(b. ii. c. 40, 41.)

Pliny further inculcates these additional maxims:—"Vines should be pruned by night at full moon; we are assured, moreover, that those vines which are trimmed at the change of the moon are exempt from the attacks of all insects.—It is of the greatest consequence to the grape that it should be gathered while the moon is on the increase.—All vegetable productions are cut, gathered, and housed to more advantage while the moon is on the wane than while it is on the increase.—Put eggs under the hen at a new moon.—Make your ditches in the night-time when the moon is at full.—It is generally recommended, too, to give an airing to corn and grain, and to garner them towards the end of the moon; to make seed-plots when the moon is above the horizon; and to tread out the grape, and fell timber, when the moon is below it."—(b. xviii.)

The Romans, it is well known, as they advanced in power and wealth, gradually contracted extravagant and luxurious habits, and lavished vast sums in ransacking the earth for the promotion and perfecting the gastronomic art. In their list of delicacies oysters took a high position, and no repast was deemed worthy or complete without their presence, raw or cooked in one or more of the various ways then in favour. And this was no inexpensive dish, for not only were the waters of Cyzicus, Ephesus, and the Lucrine lake sedulously cultivated, but the shores of Brundisium, and even of distant Britain, were laid under contribution for supplies of that delicious mollusc. Various authors of that day were of opinion that the moon had peculiar influence over oysters, and the following story is related of the poet Annianus, "who on his Falernian estate was wont to spend the time of vintage in a jovial and hospitable way. At a supper, on one occasion, there was provided an ample quantity of oysters from Rome; but when set before the guests they proved, though many, yet all poor and thin. This being noticed by his guests, Annianus, by way of explanation and apology, replied, 'The moon is now, in truth, waning, and on that account the oyster, like some other things, is lean and devoid of juice. Do you not remember what Lucilius says?—"Those very things which grow with the moon's increase, pine away as it wanes: the eyes of cats become fuller or smaller according to the changes of the moon." But that is still more surprising which I have read in Plutarch, that the onion becomes green and flourishing as the moon wastes away, and dries up again as the moon increases. And that is the reason, say the Egyptian priests, why the Pelusians do not eat the onion, because it alone of all potherbs has its turns of diminution and increase according to those of the moon.'"

It certainly is not a little surprising that this superstitious idea respecting the moon's influence should have prevailed through so many ages, and pervaded such distant communities. It would seem that whilst the vivifying powers of the sun were credited with maturing and perfecting the various products of nature, divarications and deficiencies were ascribed to the paler and

weaker rays of the moon. It is no less curious to note, that the singular illusion as to the moon's influence on oysters pervaded the minds of intelligent persons in this country so late as 1666 ; for in the *Philosophical Transactions* of that year, travellers to India are solicited to inquire "whether the shell-fishes that are in these parts plump and in season at the full moon, and lean and out of season at the new, are found to have contrary constitutions in the East Indies?" to which answer was returned, "I find it so here, by experience at Batavia, in oysters and crabs." Again, in an essay *On the Flux and Reflux of the Sea*, printed in 1673, we read these words: "It is observed, that when the moon is in her sextile, and in her full, shell-fish do swell and increase to an unusual bulk and corpulency." Still, vague speculations of this occult nature should not be hastily relegated back to the supposed barbarous days of blind paganism, since even with modern Italian vintners it is a received dictum that wine ought never to be transferred from one cask to another in the months of January or March unless in the decline of the moon, under the penalty of having it spoiled. Toaldo has not favoured us with any physical reason for this precept, but it is remarkable that Pliny, on the authority of Hyginus, recommends precisely the opposite course. It may be fairly inferred, then, from such rules of contrary, that the moon exercises no influence whatever in this case, malifluent or otherwise.

Crude and fanciful as such notions may appear in the eyes of an English reader, there is little room for doubt that they formerly held extensive sway over more than one age or people. Even at the present day there are not wanting either adherents or supporters of the doctrine, if we accept the narrative of a recent accomplished Eastern traveller, who tells us that "the natives of India believe, and my own experience convinces me of the fact, that the moon exercises a strong influence on trees ; and as they think that if they cut down a tree when the moon is on the increase the sap will be up, they wait for the decrease of the planet ; because it is well known to all practical engineers in India that wood, if cut while the moon is on the increase, will be full of worm, whilst that cut in its decrease will be quite free.

In Sindh I was assured that the like opinion prevails."* The writer of *Sketches in the West Indies*, a yet more recent publication, in noticing the beauty and luxuriance of the trees and plants of Demerara, concludes with remarking,—“Of the orinoco, with its bright flame-coloured blossoms, I was told a peculiarity which I mention without comment ; it is, that it will not grow unless planted in the wane of the moon. My informant further assured me, that a similar phenomenon was observed in wallaba wood brought from Essequibo ; namely, that in preparing it for shingles, it will not split straight during the moon’s increase.”

The management necessary for giving to their wines a high degree of perfection appears to have been well understood among the antients, who were singularly curious in the means they employed for bringing them to a proper degree of maturity, and for their preservation over a lengthened term. The must, or new wine, was first refined by mixing with it the yolks of pigeons’ eggs. (*Horace.*) It was then poured into vessels or casks, usually made of earth coated with pitch or lime, and each marked with the name of the consul or the year when it was made. New strong wines, being of firmer body and texture, not only required a more active primary fermentation, but repeated depurations, before they could be safely received into the amphoræ, in which, notwithstanding, they were often apt to grow foul, and lose their transparency. The main intention of this secondary process was, by repeated artificial heat and defecation, to subdue the stubborn heavy nature of the various wines, to give them a more early maturity, to separate them from their grosser parts, and to prevent them from degenerating into a vapid putrescent state ; for which purpose they were kept for a lengthened period in a repository of peculiar construction, which by the Romans was called the *fumarium*,—the domestic smoke vent. To soften and enrich the flavour and aroma, myrrh, spikenard, and various aromatics were sometimes infused ; whilst for the purposes of clarifying, correcting nascent roughness or acidity, and

* *Narrative of a Residence at the Court of Ali Moorad, ex-Ameer of Sindh* ; by Captain Edward A. Langley, Madras Cavalry.

imparting factitious strength and pungency to the liquor, cypress, pine-leaves, myrtle-berries, bitter almonds, pitch, tar, rosin, and other incongruous substances were freely resorted to. On racking their wines, too, they were careful to direct it to be done only when the wind was northerly ; and held, according to Plutarch, that their quality and condition were most affected by the west wind. The application of the fumatory to the mellowing process was borrowed from the Asiatics, who exposed their wines to the heat of the sun on the tops of their houses, and afterwards deposited them in apartments warmed from below, to render them earlier fit for use. As the flues by which the ancient dwellings were heated were probably made to open into the fumarium, it is obvious that a steady temperature could be easily supplied, and that the vessels would be fully exposed to the action of the smoke. Although the value of this procedure may to our modern notions appear very questionable, yet it would not seem to differ very widely from that of a recent method of mellowing Madeira and other strong wines by placing them in a hot-house, or in the vicinity of a kitchen fire or baker's oven, which is found to assist the developement of their flavour, and to bring them sooner to maturity. As the earthen vases which held the ancient wines were well defended by a thick coating of pitch or plaster, it is not likely that the smoke could penetrate so as to vitiate the genuine taste and odour of the liquor ; but the warmth so maintained would have the required effect of softening the harshness of the stronger kinds, and probably of dissipating excess in the potent aroma of the condiments with which they were impregnated.

One consequence, however, of the long exposure of the amphoræ to the influence of the flue must have been, that a portion of the contents would exhale, and that the residue would acquire a greater or less degree of consistence, even to inspissation ; for however well the vases might have been coated and lined, or however carefully closed, yet, from the nature of the materials employed in their composition, from the action of the volatile fluid from within, and the effect of the smoke and heat from without, it was impossible that some degree of exudation

should not ensue, gradually reducing it to the state of a syrup or extract. Hence it comes that so many of the ancient wines were described as thick and fat, and that they were not deemed ripe for use until they had acquired an oily smoothness from age : hence, too, the practice of employing strainers to clarify them, and free them from their dregs. In fact they often became so viscid, that they could no longer be poured from the vessels, and it was necessary to dissolve them in hot water before they could be drunk.

Accident is said to have led to the discovery of another method in their treatment. A slave, who had stolen part of the contents of a cask, to escape detection adopted the expedient of supplying the deficiency with sea-water, which, on subsequent investigation, was thought to have improved the flavour of the liquor ; and thenceforward the practice of adding it to certain wines became common among the Greeks, one measure of sea-water being considered sufficient for fifty of wine. For this purpose it was directed to be taken up as far as possible from the shore, and in a calm and clear day, to ensure its being of the requisite strength and purity, and then boiled down to about a third part before it was added to the wine. This saline admixture was first mentioned by Dioscorides, and however strange it may sound to modern ears, it certainly helped to attenuate the viscosity of their stronger vintages, thereby preventing any tendency to putrescence, and promoting a freer deposition of the lees ; and it was even said, that wines carefully so treated never caused head-ache, whilst they materially assisted the digestion of food. Be that as it may, the chance expedient of a wily knave was attended with more important consequences than could have been anticipated, for the results of the admixture were sufficiently satisfactory to induce so firm a belief in the merits of salt in eliciting the latent properties and flavour of wine, that in some form it soon became an indispensable accompaniment of the dessert, and is thus mentioned by Professor Becker in his interesting *Illustrations of the private Life of the ancient Greeks* : " The dessert in earlier times consisted merely of olives, figs, nuts, &c., but especially salt, (sometimes pure, sometimes

mixed with spice,) to improve the taste of the wine. So a proverb arose, applied to those who stuck to the salt and cummin, and neglected the delicacies. The chief object of the dessert, besides the pleasure to the palate which its dainties afforded, was to keep up the desire for drinking. Cheese, too, was usually introduced, of which the Sicilian was most in repute. Dried figs were likewise eaten, gourmands preferring those from Rhodes: also olives, especially such as had ripened on the tree and become quite shrivelled, dates from Syria and Egypt, almonds, chestnuts, and various fresh fruit. Cakes strewn with salt, which they ate with their wine, were always a prominent feature of the dessert."—*Metcalf's Translation*.

At first sight it seems difficult to account for the expedients then resorted to, or how a predilection could exist for wines perfected by the addition of sea-water, or impregnated with the odour of pitch, rosin, or other unsavoury product. Nor can it be easily imagined that their strong liquors could be rendered very exquisite by being exposed to smoky garrets until reduced to a syrup, and rendered so muddy and thick as to require straining through a fine cloth in order to free them from impurities, or to be scraped from the sides of the vessels and dissolved in hot water, before they were fit to be swallowed. But when we consider the effects of habit, which soon reconciles the palate to the most disagreeable substances, and the influence of fashion and luxury, which leads us to prefer every thing that is costly or exclusive to articles of more intrinsic worth and moderate price, we may readily conceive that both Greeks and Romans might have excused their fondness for pitched and pickled wines on the same plea by which we justify our preference to beer, coffee, tobacco, or other coarse condiments, so freely adopted for social and domestic consumption :—

“Sour and acid wine we scorn and loathe,
Yet are delighted with sharp caper sauce.”—*Alexis*.

Onions, too, notwithstanding their strong and repulsive odour, lent their aid to furnish new piquancy and zest to the jolly-minded toper :—

“There was the onion, too, to season wine.”—*Idem*.

It was long ago observed by Plutarch, that certain dishes and liquors which at first appeared intolerable, came in time to be reckoned the most agreeable ; and surely the charge of indulging a perverted taste in wine would proceed with an ill grace from a people, among whom a notorious partiality exists in favour of harsh and potent liquors, which long use has rendered palatable to their respective admirers. A more attentive examination of the facts, however, will probably satisfy us that these practices of the antients were by no means so injurious to the qualities of their liquors as, on a hasty view, we might be inclined to suspect. The natural tendency of all wines, more especially those of the lighter vintages, to secondary fermentation and early acescence is well known, and claims even in the present age constant vigilance and care. As the art of distillation was then unknown, the Greeks, who were skilful and ingenious in the invention of methods for preserving, maturing, and forcing wines, employed, as we have seen, pitch, rosin, and otherlike ingredients, and for fining, used burnt and plain salt, bitter almonds, the whites of eggs, and isinglass more than all ; but to liquors unusually thick or ropy, for more effective filtration they added sand, gypsum, finely powdered marble, salt or sea-water, potters' earth, and other ponderous materials. The barrels were sometimes fumigated with various gums and aromatic substances, such as mastic, cloves, rhodium-wood, and labdanum. Both in Eubœa and the Morea turpentine is added to similar correctives ; in other localities pitch or pine-tree cones are employed in its stead. That this method is of very ancient origin is intimated by the fact that the cones of the fir were consecrate to Bacchus, and that they ornamented the tip of the thyrsus staff. Thus many of the ingredients that entered into the composition of their remedies being of an insoluble nature, were designed to operate chiefly by way of clarifying or filtrating the liquors to which they were added. Others, again, would doubtless impart their own peculiar flavour, but then great caution was exercised lest it should become too predominant, and even this was often wholly or partially neutralized by age. When new, the antients condemned such rosined and tainted beverage as much as ourselves, and it

was only when their acrid qualities had become subdued that they were held in any degree of estimation.

The Roman vine-grounds were very fertile, producing wine in great abundance. According to Varro this fertility must have been somewhat dazzling :—

“What necessary of life,” he exclaims in a fit of poetic fervour, “what can be named which Italy does not furnish in abundance, and of most excellent quality? What corn shall I compare with that of the Campania? what wheat with that of Apulia? what wine with the Falernian? what oil with the Venefran? Is not Italy so thickly planted with trees that altogether it may be likened to a vast orchard? Can Phrygia be said to be more completely covered with vines than this country? In what other land does one *jugerum* [less than an English acre] yield ten, nay, fifteen *culei* of wine, as is the case in several parts of Italy?”—[the *culeus* is nearly equivalent to 135 English gallons.] “Such,” remarks Columella in a comment on this passage, “was unquestionably the case in former times. But even now,” he adds, “in the famed territory of Nomentum, eight *culei* are no uncommon product for each *jugerum*. And the exuberance of our Spanish vine-grounds is still more astonishing, where, on the one hand, a single vine has been seen to bear upwards of 2,000 bunches of grapes; and, on the other hand, seven *culei* of wine have been obtained from eighty stocks of only two years’ growth.”

It is tolerably clear, from the way in which he speaks of Varro’s sanguine statement, that Columella was inclined to regard it as somewhat exaggerated; yet, if we take even his own more moderate estimate, the amount must be considered as very great. The vineyards of modern Champagne in ordinary seasons usually average about 290 gallons to the demi-hectare, which is a fourth larger than the English acre; whilst in the Lyonnais and other more southern provinces the same breadth of land has yielded as much as 875 gallons. This, however, is little better than at the rate of three *culei* to the *jugerum*. In Granada where the climate is still more propitious, and excels even that of Italy in warmth, vines that are unusually prolific will occasionally return 110 to 153 gallons from each group of 250 plants, which is at the rate of from 923 to 1,279 gallons to the English acre. But this is a very uncommon degree of fertility, and the

average produce of the Granada vineyards falls considerably short of half that quantity, much greater attention being now bestowed on quality rather than on quantity of the vintage.

In the earlier days of abundant seasons wine was vended in Rome at very moderate prices, the cost of a gallon not exceeding fourpence of our money. The lighter red descriptions were used for ordinary purposes, and would seldom keep longer than from one vintage to another. The stronger dark-coloured varieties were more hardy, and if long kept, underwent a kind of semi-decomposition, when by the precipitation of part of the extractive matter and the mellowness resulting from age, the genuine flavour of the growth was fully developed, and all early asperity removed. From the mode, however, pursued by the antients, a greater or less inspissation of their wines took place; and this was most observable in the more generous kinds, the taste becoming disagreeably bitter, and the true flavour of the liquor obscured. Wine of a middle age was therefore to be preferred, as being the most wholesome and grateful; but in those days, even as in ours, it was the fashion to place the highest value on whatever was rarest, and an extravagant sum was often given for wines which were literally hardly drinkable. Such seems to have been the famous vintage in the consulship of Lucius Opimius Nepos, when, from the remarkable heat and serenity of the summer, all the productions of the earth attained an uncommon degree of perfection. This occurred in the year 633 A.U.C. according to Pliny, who lived a couple of centuries afterwards; he asserts that some of it still existed in his time, but reduced to the consistence of honey, and applicable only in small quantities for flavouring other wines, or mixing with water. This practice might have given rise to the use of mulled wine, so highly in favour with the Roman people.

As the Romans lived much in public, and but few had the necessary conveniences for keeping a stock of wine in their dwellings, persons of moderate means were supplied, as they wanted it, with a cask or an amphora from one of the public stores, where wines of all ages and qualities were to be had. Of its great abundance in early times the liberal allowance which

Cato, notwithstanding his extreme frugality, prescribes for his farm-servants, may afford some notion, and indicate the tone of domestic order and governance prevalent in his day.

“After the vintage is finished,” he says, “let the family drink the *lora*, or small wine made of the husks, during the first three months. In the fourth month, the allowance of wine may be one *hemina* [three-quarters of a pint] daily, or, altogether, three gallons for each individual: in the fifth to the eighth month, a pint and a half daily, or in each month five gallons: in the ninth to the twelfth month three *heminae* daily, that is, at the rate of one amphora in the month. During the Saturnalia and Compitalia the quantity may be increased to a gallon a-day. On the whole we may reckon the annual consumption of each man at eight amphoræ; but to the slaves in fetters we must give rather more, in order that they may perform their work. For them we may consider the allowance of ten amphoræ [68 gallons] in the year as by no means immoderate.”

This, however, is only dealing with the weak common wines, which as a beverage were probably little superior to our table-beer. But the progress of luxury and the extension of conquest and commerce led to a gradual augmentation of prices, and to the introduction of richer and more costly vintages. In the time of the emperor Theodosius, the price of wine is computed by Gibbon at about 16*d.* the gallon; yet in a subsequent chapter of the *Decline and Fall* we read, that under the mild sway of the Gothic conqueror Theodoric, “such was the extraordinary plenty which an industrious people produced from a grateful soil, that a gallon of wine was sold for less than three-farthings.” Caius Lentius used to say, that Chian wine was first introduced into his house as a cordial prescribed to him by his physician: Hortensius, 50 years before Christ, left more than 10,000 casks of the Ariusian vintage to his heir; and Varro relates of Lucius L. Lucullus, that, when a boy, he never saw Greek wine presented to the guests oftener than once at any of the great entertainments given by his father: but when he returned from his Asiatic expedition and celebrated his triumph, he himself distributed upwards of 100,000 gallons. Lucullus was raised to the consulship seventy-three years before the Christian era, and was remarkable for his victories and his riches, his justice and

humanity. His conquests in Africa and Asia brought him immense spoil, and on his return from the Levant with prodigious wealth, he ran into the most unbounded extravagance, although his previous habits had been very moderate: he was altogether the pioneer of inordinate luxury, and the first to exemplify it among the Romans, having then become master of the riches of two kings, Mithridates and Tigranes. The expenses attendant on his meals were excessive, and his table was served with a profusion before unconceived. His apartments were severally named after the different gods, and this distinction served as a sufficient direction to the steward what cost to incur on the entertainment to be there given, for each of his dining-rooms had its own particular bill of fare, with an appropriate service of plate and other decorative furniture. Pompey and Cicero, on one occasion, thinking to surprise him by an unexpected visit, were astonished at the magnificence and variety lavished on a supper suddenly provided, and on the mere bidding of Lucullus that he would sup that evening in the hall of Apollo, the name given to one of his most magnificent saloons. The fixed cost of a banquet there was 50,000 drachmas (1,600*l.*), and the whole sum was expended on this occasion. His mansion was further enriched with a valuable library, which was opened for the service of the learned and the curious, and he devoted much of his own time to studious pursuits and literary conversation. He was credited also with the fame of being the first who planted cherry-trees in Europe, having brought the grafts with him on his return from the kingdom of Pontus.

Lucullus, although already the possessor of several mansions of equal yet varied magnificence at Baïæ, Naples, Tusculum, etc., expended 80,000*l.* sterling in the purchase of the luxurious villa of Marius, situate on a lofty promontory in the lovely bay of Naples, which he further adorned with Grecian art and Asiatic treasures, his houses and gardens retaining a distinguished place in the list of imperial palaces. His extravagant habits, great as they are recorded to have been, were in later times far outdone by the vicious propensities of the emperor Vitellius, who marked each successive day by novel scenes of intemperance and sensual

orgies. He usually feasted four or five times a day, and so eager was he to renew the pleasures of the table, that he resorted to the use of emetics when suffering from repletion, in order to gratify his palate afresh. His food was of the most rare and exquisite nature. The deserts of Libya, the littoral borders of Spain, and the waters of the Carpathian sea were ransacked to supply the daily royal banquets. He occasionally dined and supped at their own mansions with favourite nobles of his court, and the entertainment never cost any of them less than 400,000 sesterces, or about 3,230*l.* The most remarkable among these was a supper given by his brother Lucius, on his return to the Capitol after the battle of Mantua. The table, among other viands, was covered with 2,000 dishes of the choicest fish, and 7,000 of various fowls; and so profuse was he in his general expenditure, that above seven and a quarter millions sterling were exhausted in maintaining his establishment for a period much less than a year.—(*Tacitus.*)

In striking contrast with this lavish prodigality may be mentioned the more discreet conduct of Amphictyon, king of Athens, who is said to have issued a decree directing that neat wine should be merely tasted at the entertainments of the Athenians; but that the guests should be permitted to drink freely of wine when mixed with water. To take it otherwise being held disreputable, it became the custom with the patricians, both in Greece and Rome, to drink their wines diluted. Though this was the ordinary rule, yet in their unguarded hours, and on particular occasions, they often drank a full-bodied wine without any reduction of strength. The vintages then in use bore a high reputation, their virtues and potency securing the praise and delight of Homer himself. It was in their luscious sweet wines, however, that the Athenian people surpassed all other nations, and to this class the commendations of their later poets must be chiefly ascribed. They were, for the most part, the products of the Ionian and Ægean seas, where the cultivation of the vine was assiduously practised, and where a benignant climate and a rich volcanic soil gave to its fruit an unusual degree of excellence. Lesbos, Chios, and Thasos, in particular, seem to have

contended for the superiority of their respective growths, and native genius never wearied in loudly echoing their worth. Of the latter the poet Antiphanes thus testifies,—

“ Nothing so much provokes the appetite,
And gives a relish to the food we eat,
As generous Thasian wine, with unguent sweet
And crowns of various flowers. Where these abound
The beauteous Venus takes delight to dwell ;
But turns her back upon the scanty meal,
And shuns the poor man’s board.”

Several other islands of the Archipelago, as Cos, Cyprus, Cnidos, and Rhodes, yielded wines much esteemed for their alluring luscious fragrance ; and, till a comparatively recent period, it was from these sources that the greater part of Europe was supplied with the richest sweet kinds. The grapes were culled in their ripest state, and being generally of the muscat species, imparted a grateful perfume to the liquor,—a quality on which the Greeks placed a high value, as may be seen from the frequent allusions to it by their poets. Whilst the wines of Thasos, and some of those of the isle of Crete, possess great richness and flavour the exquisite aroma of the Sappian, which was probably Chian wine matured by great age, held the first rank in the estimation both of the bard and the historian. The Lesbian, if somewhat less odorous, was eminent for its bland and dulcet character ; it is said to have deserved the name of ambrosia rather than of wine, and to have been perfect nectar when old. The Thasian was a generous sweet kind, ripening slowly, and acquiring with age a delicate odour of the apple. The Chian, again, is described by some as a thick luscious wine ; and that which grew on the craggy heights of Ariusium, extending three hundred stadia along the coast, was extolled as the best of all of Greek origin.

“ *Vina novum fundam calathis Ariusia nectar.*”—VIRGIL, *Ecl.*

The Phanean, lauded by Virgil as the king of all wines, was a product of the same island. Ariston, the Chian, well said that “the most agreeable drink was that which partook at the same time of both sweetness and fragrance ; for which reason some people prepare what is called nectar about Mount Olympus,

mixing wine and honeycombs and the most fragrant flowers together. Ibycus opined that ambrosia was nine times as sweet as honey; stating expressly that honey has just one-ninth part of the power of ambrosia as far as sweetness goes." According to Theophrastus, too, "the wine at Thasos is wonderfully delicious, for it is well seasoned; they knead up dough with honey, and put that into the earthen jars, so that the wine receives fragrance from itself, and sweetness from the honey." Black wine, Theopompus tells us, was first made among the Chians, who imparted the knowledge of planting and tending vines to the rest of mankind, having ostensibly learnt the art from Ænopean, the son of Bacchus, who originally colonized the island.

In the time of Pliny, the Pramnian, a red wine of great antiquity, was still a noted growth of Smyrna. It was a hard, astringent liquor of extraordinary strength, was remarkably fervid and durable, and much commended for its medicinal properties. The Athenians, however, appear to have had little relish for a beverage of this character, and "abominated the harsh Pramnian wine," Aristophanes tells us, "which shrivelled the features, and obstructed the digestive organs." According to some authorities Pramnian wine was a product of the island of Icarus, where there was a rocky hill of that name; others state it as the growth of Ephesus, or Lesbos, whilst some writers suppose that the appellation was intended to express its durable quality, or denoted a particular species of grape from which it was made. Be this as it may, we have sufficient ground for describing it as a strong, heavy, astringent liquor, bearing a close resemblance in taste and character to the wine of Oporto. It was neither sweet nor thick, but austere when young, unusually potent and enduring,—peculiarities essentially characteristic of the wine of modern growth. Like Port wine, too, of the present day, it was much commended for its tonic virtues, and on that account was sometimes called *pharmacites*.

"The wine of Surrentine," we learn from Athenæus, "begins to be drinkable when 25 years old, for as it has no essential oil of any sort in it, and is very limpid, it is a long time ripening; but the Rhegian, a Sicilian vintage, being richer than the Surrentine, may be used as soon

as it is 15 years old. The Setine is a wine of the first class, like the Falernian, but lighter, and not so apt to induce intoxication. The Gauran is a scarce and very fine wine, powerful and oily. The Cecuban is a noble vintage, full of strength, and easily affecting the head ; but it does not mature to its prime till after many years. The wine of Nomentum, on the contrary, ripens much earlier, and can be drunk as soon as it is five years old. The Mamertine is a foreign wine made out of Italy. . . The dark-coloured wines are the strongest, and remain in the system of the drinkers longer than any other. White wines are generally weak and thin ; but yellow or amber wine is very sustaining and digestible, being of a more drying nature."

The sweet wines of the Greeks, as before observed, were principally of the luscious kind, like the produce of the present Cyprus or Constantia grapes, and they were accustomed to have their beverages cooled and iced in various ways. None of the more generous sorts were reckoned fit for use before the fifth year, and the majority of them were kept for a much longer period. The richer dessert-kinds mostly in use among them were the Thasian and Lesbian ; among the Romans, the Cecuban, Albanian, Setine, Surrentine, and Falernian ; and, after their knowledge of the produce of foreign countries, the Chian, Lesbian, Rhodian, Naxian, Mamertine, Coan, Mæonian, and Mareotic.

"Nor can Italian wines produce the shape,
Or taste or flavour of the Lesbian grape.
The Thasian vines in richer soils abound,
The Mareotic grow in barren ground.
The Psythian grape we dry : Legæan juice
Will stammering tongues and staggering feet produce ;
The Aminean many a consulship survives,
And longer than the Lydian vintage lives."—*Georgics*, b. ii.

The Cecuban, grown in the poplar marshes of Amycla, is further described by Galen as a generous, durable wine, apt to affect the head, but ripening only after a long term of years. It appears to have been a favourite wine with Horace, who speaks of it as being often reserved for important festivals : when new, it belonged to the rough sweet class. The Faustian, a variety of the Falernian grape, was said to be of so spirituous a nature that it would burn with a pure and bright flame. The empress Julia Augusta used to say, that she was indebted to the goodness

of the Pucine vintage for living to the advanced age of 82. This wine was the product of a grape planted on a stony and rugged hill along the Adriatic sea, or gulf of Venice. The wines of Tuscany ; the Rhætian, grown near Verona ; the Massic ; the Palmesian, obtained from vines trained on the palm and date tree ; the wines made between the Pyrenean hills and the Alps, with several others, were of good quality, and many of them in considerable demand in Pliny's day.

But besides their indigenous growths, the Greeks were familiar with the produce of the African and Asiatic vines, of which several enjoyed a distinguished reputation, and may be considered as the parent stocks from which their first vineyards were derived. Of these, the earliest of which we have any distinct account is the Maronean, probably a production of the territory of that name on the coast of Thrace. It was a black sweet wine, and from the evident delight with which the Father of poetry enlarges on its virtues, we may venture to consider it to have been similar in character to the delicious Vin Santo, or Lachryma Christi, of modern days, and of the choicest quality. He describes it as "rich, unadulterate, and fit drink for the gods," and as so potent, that it was usually mixed with twenty measures of water,—

"And even then the beaker breathed abroad
A scent celestial, which whoever smelt,
No pleasure found it thenceforth to abstain."

"The wine of Maronea," remarks Pliny, "still retains all its pristine strength, and a degree of vigour that is quite insuperable." Other parts of Thrace were also famous for their good vintages, but Ismarus seemed to have longest maintained its credit. Some of the Bithynian wines were of the choicest quality : the produce of Byblos, in Phœnicia, on the other hand, vied in fragrantcy with the Lesbian ; and the white varieties of Lake Mareotis and Tænia, in Lower Egypt, were of almost unrivalled excellence. But the wine of Merœe, now called Nuabia, an island of Ethiopia, which was provided at the feast given to Cæsar by the voluptuous Cleopatra, surpassed all others in estimation, and appears to have borne some resemblance to the Falernian.

“The Mareotic wine,” Athenæus tells us, “had its name from a town called Marea, derived from Maro, who was one of the companions of Bacchus in his expedition. And there are many vines in that country which produce grapes very good to eat when ripe. The wine made from them is excellent; but still better than this is the wine called Tæniotic, which is of a delicate green colour, and in addition to being sweet, has something aromatic in it of a character slightly astringent. But there are vines near the Nile in great quantities as far as the river extends, with many peculiarities, both of colour and quality. However, the best of all the wines of that district is that made near the city of Anthylla, near Alexandria, the revenues from which, as already noted, the kings of those eras, both Egyptian and Persian, used to give to their wives for pin-money.”

The Asiatics were equally remarkable for their vinous products, and the Greeks, acquiring a knowledge of their rules and precepts of culture, by the force of superior genius and industry greatly improved them. Their wines, however, were not freely consigned to Italy until a greater degree of affluence and luxury began to prevail among the Romans, who long neglected the culture of their own vintages, and were more intent on extending their conquests and power than encouraging science or the useful and finer arts. As the demand for their wines and the price of them greatly increased, the Greeks soon fell into the common error, and slackened in their usual care and simplicity in preparing them: by adopting a more easy and fictitious process they forced them into earlier maturity, and extensively increased the quantities exported. From this period the reputation of Greek vintages began to decline; few sorts were supplied genuine, and conscious of their waning influence, they were soon led to apply their ingenuity more to arts of adulteration than improvement. In furtherance of this pursuit they became so expert in the practice of fraudulent compounds, that they not only imitated the wine of any particular growth, but of any particular age, at the cost of their former good name and repute; but such a stolid and retrograde course only served to augment a more intense appreciation and demand for sound and genuine vintages.

Laudation by clever authors and poets was never wanting in

those days ; and for the preservation of many happy passages the world is indebted to the zeal of the eminent writer and philosopher Athenæus, who, imbued with a great love of learning, devoted much of his life to reading and study. He was the author of an elaborate and miscellaneous work called *Table-Talk of the Sophists*, replete with curious and interesting remarks and anecdotes of the manners of the age in which he lived, and invaluable for the preservation of numerous pieces of ancient poetry, which otherwise must have been irretrievably lost. The following extracts refer to the choicer wines of that period :—

“ Good wine’s the gift which God has given
To man alone beneath the heaven ;
Of dance and song the genial sire,
Of friendship gay and soft desire.
Yet rule it with a tightened rein,
Nor careful wisdom’s rules disdain ;
For when unchecked there’s nought runs faster, —
A useful slave, but cruel master.”—*Panyasis*.

“ O’er the first cup the Graces three preside,
And with the smiling Hours the palm divide ;
Next Bacchus, parent of the sacred vine,
And Venus, loveliest daughter of the brine,
Smile on the second cup, which cheers the heart,
And bids the drinker to his home depart.
But the *third* cup is waste and sad excess,
Parent of wrong, denier of redress ;
Oh ! who can tell what evils may befall
When strife and insult rage throughout the hall ?
For riot will be bred by too much wine,
A mournful ending for a feast divine !”—*Idem*.

“ Three cups of wine a prudent man may take ;
The first of these for constitution’s sake.
The second to the girl he loves the best ;
The third and last to lull him to his rest.
Then home to bed ! but if a fourth he pours,
That is the cup of vice, and waste of hours.
Loud noisy talking on the fifth attends ;
The sixth breeds feuds and falling-out of friends ;
Seven beget blows, and faces stain’d with gore,
Eight,—and the watch-patrol breaks ope the door.
Mad with the ninth, another cup goes round,
And the swill’d sot drops senseless to the ground.”—*Eubolus*.

“There are only two secrets a man cannot keep,
 One when he's in love, one when he's drunk deep ;
 For these facts are betray'd by his tongue or his eyes,
 And we see it more plainly the more he denies.”—*Antiphanes*.

“Take the hair, it well is written,
 Of the dog by whom you're bitten.
 Work off one wine by his brother,
 And one labour with another.”—*Idem*.

“A. Tell me, I pray you, how life you define ?
 B. To drink large goblets of rich Chian wine.”—*Idem*.

“'Twere madness, sure, if thirsty Nature's want
 One glass could ease, one bottle could content ;
 To cry ‘the boundless ocean's depths explore
 To quench my thirst ;’ or starve my fancied pow'r
 To drain a petty fountain's thrifty store.”—*Horace*.

“Many in bowls of Massic juice
 Deceive the day, and give their cares a loose ;
 Now at full length extended in the shade,
 Then to a sacred spring to soothe the head.”—*Idem*.

Achæus praises the Bibline wine ; whilst Philyllius sings,—

“I'll give you Lesbian, Chian wine,
 Thasian, Mendæan, and Bibline:—
 Sweet wines, but none so strong and heady
 As the next day will make you seedy.”

Naxian wine is exultingly compared by Archilocus to nectar ;
 and Archestratus, the Syracusan, author of *The Art of giving
 a Banquet*, thus praises that of Lesbos :—

“Your goblets fill with gen'rous rich old wine
 From rocky Lesbos brought, around whose shores
 The salt sea beats incessant,—better far
 Than that of Byblos. Though the Byblian grape
 First tasted you prefer for its rich smell
 To that of Lesbos, soon the odour sweet
 Palls on the sense, and the choice flavour dies,
 Vapid and spiritless ; whilst the Lesbian juice—
 Call it ambrosia rather—never cloyes.
 The Thasian wine is gen'rous, rich, and good,
 But only when it's mellow'd well by time.
 I could a thousand other kinds recite
 From various countries ; yet can none compare
 To wine from Lesbos. Give but this to me,
 Let others praise their own.”

- “The Thasian island noble wine doth grow,
 When passing years have made its flavour mellow,
 And other places too ; still all I know
 Is that the Lesbian liquor has no fellow.
 “For Lesbian is the true ambrosial juice,
 And so the gods, whose home’s Olympus, think it ;
 And if some rather the Phœnician choose,—
 Let them, as long as they don’t make me drink it.”—*Idem.*

Hermippus, a comedian contemporary with Euripides, thus avows his preference :—

“I love the soft and light Magnesian wine ;
 But that of Thasos gives the odour sweet
 Of the ripe apple : this I think the best,
 If you except the mild and harmless Chian.
 There is a wine called Saprian ; when you broach
 The cask a soft delicious perfume fills
 The spacious room with nicely blended scents
 Of the rich violet with the fragrant rose
 And hyacinth : ’tis ambrosial nectar,
 Or rather nectar pure, fit for the gods.
 With this I treat my friends : my enemies
 May drink the bitter Peparethan wine.”

Speaking as from the mouth of Bacchus, he further says,—

“Mendæan wine, such as the gods distil,
 And sweet Magnesian, cures for every ill,
 And Thasian, redolent of mild perfume ;
 But of them all, the most inviting bloom
 Mantles above old Homer’s Chian glass,—
 That wine doth all its rivals far surpass.”

The author of the epigram on Cratinus says,—

- “If with water you fill up your glasses,
 You’ll never write any thing wise ;
 But wine is the horse of Parnassus,
 That carries a bard to the skies.
 “And this was Cratinus’s thought,
 Who was ne’er with one bottle content ;
 But stuck to his cups as he ought,
 And to Bacchus his heart and voice lent.
 “His house all with garlands did shine ;
 And with ivy he circled his brow,
 To show he nought worshipp’d but wine,
 As—if he still lived—he’d do now.”

The sage Plutarch gravely announced his conviction, that “of all drinks wine is most profitable, of medicines most pleasant, and of dainty viands most harmless, provided it be well-tempered with moderation and judgment.”

Among the literary *petits morceaux* preserved in the archives of the British Museum there is a small volume, *temp.* 1710, which contains the following sprightly effusion,—paraphrased from the once-famous French ballad of *Chanson à Boire*, and commencing with this expressive stanza :—

“ Je cherche en vin la vérité ;
Si le vin n’aide à ma faiblesse,
Toute la docte antiquité
Dans le vin puisa la sagesse.”

WINE AND WISDOM;

OR, CLASSIC PHILOSOPHERS IN THEIR CUPS.

WISE Thales, the father of all
The Greek philosophical crew,
Ere he gaz’d at the heavens would call
For a chirruping bottle or two ;
That, when he had brighten’d his eyes,
He the planets might better behold,
And made the fools think he was wise,
By the whimsical tales that he told.

Wise Solon, who carefully gave
Good laws unto Athens of old,
Declar’d the rich Croesus a slave,
Though a king, to his coffers of gold ;
He delighted in plentiful bowls,
But, drinking, much talk would decline,
Because ’twas the custom of fools
To prattle much over their wine.

Democritus always was glad
To tipple and cherish his soul,
Would laugh like a man that was mad,
When over a full-flowing bowl.
As long as his cellar was stor’d,
His liquor he’d merrily quaff ;
And when he was drunk as a lord,
At those who were sober he’d laugh.

Old Priscus, who liv’d to the age
Of ninety, though some will say more,
Much sooner had quitted the stage
Had he not drunk of liquor good store ;

But finding it lengthen his days,
He thought it no crime to be mellow,
And coveted no other praise
Than that of an honest good fellow.

Old Socrates ne’er was content
Till a bottle had heighten’d his joys,
Who in’s cups to the oracle went,
Or he ne’er had been counted so wise.
Late hours he certainly lov’d,
Made wine the delight of his life,
Or Xantippe would never have prov’d
Such a damnable scold of a wife.

Old Plato was reckon’d divine,
He wisely to virtue was prone ;
But had it not been for good wine,
His merits had never been known.

By wine we are generous made,
It furnishes fancy with wings,
Without it we ne’er should have had
Philosophers, poets, or kings.

Aristotle, that master of arts,
Had been but a dunce without wine,
And what we ascribe to his parts,
Is but due to the juice of the vine.
His belly, some writers agree,
Was as large as a watering trough,
He therefore leap’d into the sea,
Because he’d have liquor enough.

Bold Xenophon studied a while,
 Till he found the true way to be wise
 Was all night at the bottle to toil,
 Till the sparkles flew out of his eyes ;
 Which so nobly inspir'd his soul,
 That he took up the sword & the shield,
 So quitted his books for the bowl,
 And became a brave man in the field.

Demosthenes, who by report
 Had so sweet and persuasive a tongue,
 If he hadn't drunk wine by the quart,
 It would never have been so well hung.
 Yet Philip expell'd him from Greece,
 As a man of a wicked design ;
 Which caused him to drink to excess,
 Till he poison'd himself with bad wine.

Wise Cato believ'd a full bowl
 Was good for his wit and his health ;
 But when he was sober, the fool
 Would clamour for a Commonwealth.
 But had he drunk cheerily on,

He 'gainst Nero had never conspir'd,
 But had rhym'd like Apollo's own son,
 And had been with true lealty fir'd.

Old Seneca, fam'd for his parts,
 Who tutor'd the bully of Rome,
 Grew wise o'er his books and his quarts,
 Which he drank, like a miser, at home.
 And to show he lov'd wine that was
 good,

To the last,—we may truly aver it,
 He tinctur'd his bath with his blood,
 And fancied he died in his Claret.

Aristippus, so frisky and gay,
 Tho' wise, would not balk his delight,
 But drank in the pride of the day,
 Hugg'd Lais of Corinth at night.

He was always as free as a prince,
 And quick at a pun or a jest ;
 Would never grudge any expense
 To purchase a cup of the best.

Old Strato, who kept up a school
 To teach philosophical drones,
 Drank wine like a blockhead by rule,
 Till little flesh was left on his bones ;
 Yet liv'd to a very great age,
 By constantly wetting his clay ;
 And when he grew sick of this stage,
 He insensibly dwindled away.

Porphyrius, who travell'd to Rome,
 Was cunning in every art,
 And tipp'd in hopes to become
 Very wise by the aid of the quart ;
 Thus chasing the bottle for years,
 He grew a most wonderful sage,
 And drank till his reverend hairs
 Were honour'd for wisdom and age.

Copernicus, like to the rest,
 Believ'd there was wisdom in wine,
 And fancied a cup of the best
 Made reason the brighter to shine.
 With wine he replenish'd his veins,
 And made his philosophy reel ;
 Then fancied the world—like his brains—
 Ran round like a chariot wheel.

Diogenes, surly and proud,
 Who snarl'd at the Macedon youth,
 Delighted in wine that was good,
 Because in good wine there is truth ;
 Till growing as poor as a Job,
 Unable to purchase a flask,
 He chose for his mansion a tub,
 And liv'd by the scent of the cask !





SECTION III.

“The goblets rich were with ambrosia crown’d,
Which Hermes bore to all the gods around.”—*Sappho*.

Ambrosial Nectar of the Antients: their gorgeous Cups and Festal Customs.



IN the palmy days of Greece and Rome the art of distillation was unknown, and though practised by chemists so early perhaps as the ninth century, it was not until the commencement of the eighteenth that its appropriation became general. We are indebted to the Arabs for the invention, and it is supposed to have been brought into Spain by the Moors; yet that the antients knew how to manufacture and appreciate good wine, is clearly proved by the accounts left by Galen, Pliny, and others. It was from the knowledge and use of wine that both comedy and tragedy had their origin in Icarium, a village of Attica; and it was at the time of the grape-harvest that plays and mimes were first represented. Poets and philosophers, Roman as well as Greek, exalted in immortal verse the fascinating influence of wine. Homer, Zeno, Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, who were all moderate men, yet fond of society and high-flavoured wines, have elegantly expressed their sentiments when wine had whetted their wit; and we might have unjustly suspected Horace of being a toper from his animated commendations of the wines of his day. Socrates, too, esteemed one of the best bottle companions that ever delighted in the little hours, was no flincher; and though he was accused of intemperance by Plato, he never took more wine than served to excite his eloquence, or to make his wit sparkle with all the brightness of a charming vivacity. Xenophon relates a saying of Socrates, when seated

an honoured guest at a social banquet,—“ I too, my friends, shall be very well pleased to drink ; for really wine, by moistening the spirits, lulls cares to rest as mandroga puts men to sleep, and wakes up pleasant thoughts as oil excites a flame. Yet if we pour into ourselves drink in too great a quantity, our bodies and minds will quickly become powerless, and we shall scarcely be able to breathe, much less to articulate any thing ; but if our servitors refresh us from time to time with small cups as with gentle dew, then, not being forced to get intoxicated with wine, but being aptly influenced by it, we shall best promote more agreeable mirth.”

Enraptured with their fragrance and aroma, Homer, as is well known, sang delightfully the Coan and Chian vintages ; and still vacant is the throne of Anacreon, whose lyrics for their sweetness and elegance command the admiration of succeeding ages, whilst their subtle spirit and gaiety continue to baffle the talent of the most gifted translator. A sample ode or two, although given in an English dress, will serve to convey some idea of the graceful effusions of the Grecian bard :—

“ Bring me water—bring me wine !
Quick, O boy ! and bring besides
Garlands rich with varied flowers ;
And fill the cup, that I may not
Engage with love in hopeless strife.”

“ Busy, curious, thirsty fly,
Drink with me, and drink as I ;
Freely welcome to my cup
Couldst thou sip, and sip it up.
Make the most of life you may,
Life is short and wears away ;
Both alike, both thine and mine,
Hasten quick to their decline.
Thine's a summer, mine's no more,
Though repeated to fourscore ;
Three score summers, when they're gone,
Will appear as short as one.”

“ When the rosy wine I quaff,
All my cares to rest I laugh.
What to me are grief's dull fears,
Anxious toils, or carking cares ?

Since to life these nothing give,
Why with them myself deceive ?
Let us wine's rich treasure drain,
Bounteous Bacchus' gift for pain ;
For while rosy wine we quaff,
All our cares to rest we laugh.”

“ Grey locks crown this head of mine,—
Boy! the water mix with wine ;
Give me, child, as deep a draught
As e'er was fill'd, as e'er was quaff'd.
Brimfull fill the flowing bowl ;
Come and tranquillize my soul.
Life with me may soon be shed,
He wants nothing who is dead.”

“ When the sparkling wine goes round,
And with flow'ry wreaths I'm crown'd,
Then my feeling soul unbends,
Then I fly to youthful friends.
When I quaff the rosy wine,
Then the best of gifts are mine :
With this gift away I'll fly ;
Drunk or sober, all must die.”

Girdlestone, Odes 30, 36, 39.

"Wine, then, hither to me bring :
I, though old, can drink and sing ;
Graceful still with youth can join,
And be gaily mad with wine."—*Id.* 54.

—
"Underneath the myrtle shade,
On flowery beds supinely laid,
Odorous oils my head o'erflowing,
And around it roses growing ;
What shall I do but drink away
The heat and troubles of the day ?
In this more than kingly state,
Love on me himself shall wait.
Fill to me, Love ! Nay, fill it up !
And, mingled, cast into the cup
Wit, and mirth, and noble fires,
Vigorous health and gay desires !
The wheel of life no less doth stay
On a smooth than rugged way ;
Since it equally doth flee,
Let the motion pleasant be."—*Cowley.*

"Oh ! let me, while the wild and young
Trip the mazy dance along,
Fling my heap of years away,
And be as wild, as young as they.
Hither haste, some genial soul,
And give my lips the brimming bowl.
Soon will you see this hoary sage
Forget his locks, forget his age.
He still can chant the festive hymn,
He still may kiss the goblet's brim ;
He still can act the mellow raver,
And play the fool as sweet as ever."

"And when the ripe and vermeil wine,
Sweet infant of the pregnant vine,
Which now in mellow clusters swells ;—
Ah ! when it bursts its rosy cells
The heavenly stream shall mantling flow,
To balsam every mortal woe.
No youth shall then be wan or weak,
For dimpling health shall light the cheek ;
No heart shall then desponding sigh,
For wine shall bid despondence fly."

T. Moore, Odes 53, 56.

When the Greeks had reached a high degree of eminence in the art of viticulture, wine not only enlivened the banquet, but played also an important part in the medicinal world. Strong wine was then jealously kept in special vessels, and stood in special rooms named '*apothekai*,'—whence come the modern apothecary shops. Hippocrates, it is well known, gifted with divine sagacity, and his distinguished disciple Galen, both testified to the recuperative powers of wine, and praised them no less for their prophylactic than for their therapeutic properties. It is highly improbable that Homer should have lauded the wine of his time as a "divine beverage," or that the Lesbian and Thasian grapes should have been praised for their delicious fragranc^y, or Sappian wine extolled as emitting the odour of violets, hyacinths, and roses, and as filling the house with the perfume of nectar and ambrosia when first broached,* unless these

* There is a striking coincidence between this description of the Sappian, and the account given of old Tokay wine by a learned German author, who writes, "I have drunk some that was forty years old, and which, on being poured into the glass, immediately filled the whole room with an aromatic ethereal odour."

liquors had possessed qualities which rendered them as agreeable and fascinating to the senses as such panegyrics would imply.

According to Nicander wine, *oivos*, has its name from Cæneus,—

“Cæneus pour’d the juice divine
In hollow cups, and call’d it wine;”

but Hecatæus says that the vine was discovered in Ætolia by Orestheus, the son of Deucalion, who had a son named Cæneus, after the vines, which the Greeks called *oivai*; and there is abundant reason for believing that in very remote ages the use of wine was known and extensively diffused. Nor was its enjoyment restricted to any particular people or class; and whatever may have been the special merits or character of any favourite growth, it was everywhere received with grateful delight.

As in all the more southern climates the grape attains its full maturity, and its juice abounds in the saccharine principle, a large proportion of the Greek and Asiatic wines may be fairly assumed to have been of the sweet and strong kind. Homer seldom speaks of wine without using some phrase to denote its richness or its honied sweetness, and he frequently adopts significant compound words to give fuller effect to his description. This dulcet quality, however, was by no means their sole criterion of excellence, for wines tempered by a certain degree of sharpness or astringency were held in the highest estimation. Indeed, several of the Greek dry kinds possessed extraordinary rough and acrid properties, only becoming drinkable when kept a number of years; and that sweetness was not deemed the sole requisite for a good wine may be inferred from the remark of Pliny, that the luscious sorts are usually deficient in flavour; but this censure must be understood as applying chiefly to the syrupy class, which had undergone imperfect or no fermentation at all. When this process was effected in the natural manner, when the excess of sugar was tempered by a certain amount of briskness or astringency, and when the saccharine element was still further decomposed by long keeping, wines of this character were found to be no longer cloying to the palate, and accord-

ingly ranked high in favour as possessing the most exquisite combination of tastes that liquors can acquire. When wine was found deficient in saccharine quality, it was mixed with honey, and then called *mulsum*,—the origin, it is thought, of the many processes subsequently adopted for preserving and enhancing the sweetness of wine.

The most ancient receptacles for wine were probably the skins of animals, rendered impervious by oil or resinous gums, a custom continued to this day where wood is not plentiful. The leathern bags so used by the Athenians were made from the hides of goats stripped off without being cut; the openings left by removing the legs were sewn up, and the top part was tied or sealed. When Ulysses proceeded to the cave of Polyphemos, he is described as carrying with him a goat-skin filled with the rich black wine which he received from Maron, the priest of Apollo. In the celebrated festal procession of Ptolemy Philadelphus, Callixenus tells us there was a car twenty-five cubits in length and fourteen in breadth, in which was borne a *uter* made of panthers' hides, and containing 3,000 amphoræ of wine, which was allowed to flow from it slowly as it was dragged along,—protected, probably, by some outer casing, or it could not have resisted the lateral pressure of so large a bulk of fluid. As the arts improved, vessels of clay were introduced, and the method of glazing them being as yet unknown, a coating of pitch was applied in order to prevent the exudation of the liquor. In some places where wood abounded, wine-casks were generally made of oak, and pitched externally only, which effectually defended them from moisture, and excluded the admission of air; but the vessels commonly in use among the Greeks and Romans were of earthenware, and great nicety was displayed in choosing for their construction such clay as was least porous, and best bore the action of the furnace. They had, for the most part, a bulging shape, with a wide mouth; and the lips were turned out in such a way as to prevent the ashes or pitch with which they were smeared from falling in when the cover was removed. When new, these vessels received their coating immediately on their removal from the kiln. As such of them as were of any

considerable size were liable to rents and other accidents, it was customary to bind them with leaden or oaken hoops, in order to preserve them entire. The *urna*, equal to half an amphora, was generally of an elegant form, with a narrow neck, to which two handles were attached, the body tapering towards the bottom. For the more precious wines vessels of glass were occasionally employed.

The ancient Greeks appear to have drunk at first out of the horns of oxen, and this form was retained in the earliest earthenware vessels; but in process of time other and numerous patterns and designs were substituted, and they used cups made of clay, wood, glass, iron, silver, and gold. The bottles, vases, jugs, and other vessels of various materials which may be seen in every antiquarian museum, prove that they had brought their forms to a high degree of perfection. Of the Greek artists, indeed, it may be truly affirmed that they embellished everything which they touched. To the commonest utensils they gave, not only the most convenient forms, but a high degree of beauty, and it is from their *pateræ*, cups, and vases that the moderns have borrowed the happiest models for the service of their refection rooms. Their inventive talents appear to have been constantly exercised in gratifying the taste for variety in drinking-vessels that prevailed among all ranks of the people, and who all sought to indulge according to their means,—the rich by forming large collections of cups on which the sculptor, lapidary, and jeweller had displayed the perfection of their skill; the poor by having their ivy and beechen bowls so curiously carved, that the beauty of the workmanship compensated for the meanness of the materials. Athens claimed the invention, and took the lead in the manufacture of porcelain vases; but the potteries of Samos soon rose into equal repute, and with those of Saguntum, in Spain, and two or three other towns in Italy, furnished the chief supply. Formed of the purest clay, they were celebrated for their extraordinary lightness, and were sometimes imbued with aromatic substances that imparted a grateful perfume to the liquor drank from them. The Egyptians, too, were long justly famed for their ingenious works in glass: they

could give it all the clearness of rock-crystal, and were conversant with the art of gilding and staining it of various colours. The Alexandrians, moreover, are said to have brought the manufacture to such perfection, that they could imitate in that material every sort of porcelain ware; and it was from the banks of the Nile that the Romans were supplied with wine-glasses, of which the use had become very general in the capital. Such, however, as affected much state despised what had become so cheap, and drank only from cups of gold, which, at the entertainments of the great, were frequently presented to the friends or guests whom the masters of the feast delighted to honour.

In his interesting description of the edifices and ornaments discovered at the excavation of ancient Pompeii, sir William Gell thus expresses the result of his observation:—

“There are few subjects on which the learned seem to have been so generally mistaken as that of the art of glass-making among the antients, who appear to have been far more skilful than was at first imagined. In the time of Martial, about a century after Christ, glass cups were common, except those called *calices allasontes*, which displayed changeable or prismatic colours, and were so rare that Adrian, on sending some to Servianus, ordered that they should be only used on great occasions. The vast collection of bottles, glasses, cups, decanters, cruets, and other utensils discovered at Pompeii, of which numerous specimens are preserved in the Museum at Naples, is sufficient to show that the antients were well acquainted with the art of glass-blowing in all its branches; and in process of time that material became so much the fashion, that whole chambers were lined with it.”—*Gell's Pompeiana*.

The triumph of Pompey made the Romans acquainted with a new style of vases, called *murrhine* from the substance of which they were made. They were highly prized, and though at first dedicated solely to sacred purposes, afterwards came into common use among the wealthy and luxurious. Concerning the nature of these productions, the opinions of antiquaries are exceedingly vague and unsatisfactory. That they were formed from a natural fossil, and not an artificial paste or porcelain compound, is clear from the statement of Pliny,—that it was dug from the earth like rock-crystal. It could not be onyx, or a variegated agate, or sardonyx, as evidenced by the existence of

a certain murrhine bowl that held three *sextarii*, and was valued at 80,000 *sestertii*, or 650*l.* of our money. Its possessor, a person of consular rank, was so proud and eager in using it, that the edge of it bore the marks of his teeth; yet these indentations enhanced the value rather than otherwise, as they served to manifest the genuineness of the material. "Its origin," further observes sir William Gell, "seems to have been successfully traced to China. Propertius calls them Parthian, and it is certain that the porcelain of the East was called *Mirrha di Smyrna* to as late a date as 1555."—"It is from the East," writes Pliny, "that the murrhine vases come to us. The blocks of stone from which they are manufactured are never of larger size than is sufficient for shaping into small trays, and in thickness rarely admit of the formation of such a cup as that above mentioned. It has a certain amount of lustre without the brilliancy of the precious gems, but is chiefly valued for its variegated colours, and its zones of purple and white and yellowish red passing into each other, and refracting the light. That which shows the broadest or closest veins is preferred: transparency, or paleness of colour, is reckoned a defect. Much of the beauty also consists in the tubercles and crystals which are imbedded in its substance, and it is further distinguished by its perfume." From this description it may be fairly assumed that the murrhine vases were the product of a kind of fluor-spar, a fossil which is found in most regions of the globe, and the only one to which all the characters above described will apply. Spurious vases of this kind were supplied from Thebes,—probably an imitation in paste of the costly original.

The Greeks, though a highly polished people, and living in a temperate climate, are commonly reproached with their love of wine; and their parties of pleasure have been stigmatized by some writers as little else than mere drinking bouts. But the charge must be received with considerable reservation. They were, it will be remembered, acquainted with the culture of the vine from a very early period; their soil was exceedingly propitious to its growth, and luxury had made great progress among them at a time when the manners of the Romans retained much

of their primitive simplicity. Hence their older writers make more frequent mention of their convivial excesses, and more particular allusions to the wines which they drank, than are to be found in the contemporary authors of Rome. It was long before the vivacity and relish of life exhibited by the Greeks found favour with the serious, sturdy Romans. Intent on gladiatorial games, martial combats, and wild-beast baiting, which, Sallust tells us, so well suited this rough and warlike people, they coveted little beyond the simplest fare, living chiefly on pottage, or bread and pot-herbs. Their chief magistrates and most illustrious generals, when out of office, cultivated the ground with their own hands, sat at the same board, and partook of the same food with their servants. They sometimes even cooked their own dinners, or had it brought to the field by their wives. But when wealth was introduced by the extension of conquest, the manners of the people rapidly changed; luxurious habits pervaded the entire community, rich viands and choice liquors were eagerly coveted, and the pleasures and expenses of the table became the chief object of attention.—(*Sallust*.)

The Greeks, on the other hand, although they may have often violated the laws of temperance, were studious to preserve a certain degree of decorum on festal occasions, and seldom gave in to such gross debauches as sullied the Roman name under the emperors. When they drank freely, their wine was much diluted: to use it otherwise was held to be a proof of barbarism. Zaleucus, indeed, imposed a law upon the Locrians, that a person who did so, even if he was sick, unless when ordered by a physician, should be punished with death. Indeed, to drink equal parts of wine and water was thought to be unsafe; and the dilution was frequently still more considerable, varying, according to individual taste and judgment, from one part of wine and four of water, to two of wine and four, or else five parts of water, which last seems to have been the favourite standard. To aid in their distribution slaves, usually beautiful boys, were in attendance, who mixed the wine with water, and served it up: for this purpose they carried a small goblet, holding about the twelfth part of a quart to measure with.

"Now then," said a jovial Archon, with comic mien, "I order you slaves to mix the wine well." The adage says,—

'Five drink, or three; but drink not ever four.'

"We'll take care to avoid the last; but it is old Chian that our friend is treating us to, a very potent wine. So mix two parts water to one of wine; and put some snow into it, which makes it all the fresher. But briskly round with the wine, I say; and don't forget to have a large goblet ready for those who have to drink fines."—(*Metcalf's Becker.*)

The guests, on these occasions, were entertained with music and dancing, sometimes with pantomimes and plays, or by fools and buffoons, and on occasions even with gladiators; but the more sober families had persons simply to read or repeat select passages from books, and the highest pleasure of all arose from agreeable conversation. Nevertheless, most of the Greeks, and especially the Lacedæmonians, sometimes drank wine with but little or no water, then deemed a discreditable practice, borrowed from frequent intercourse with the Scythians, who were much addicted to drunkenness, and always used wine undiluted. The Lacedæmonians boiled their wine on the fire till a fifth part was consumed, and after an interval of four years began to drink it. The Thracian tribes also drank their wine without water; and both they and the Scythians were generally such lovers of it, that the women, and all the men, thought it a most happy life to fill themselves with unmixed wine, and even to pour it freely on their garments.—(*Athenæus.*)

"Even the gods themselves, these mortals say,
Were they on earth would get as drunk as they:
Nectar no more would be celestial drink,
They'd all take wine to teach them how to think."—*De Foe.*

The natives of Thrace, indeed, were said to have been so incorrigibly addicted to intemperance, that Lycurgus their king ordered all the vines of his country to be rooted up, that himself and his subjects might be preserved from the evils of a too free indulgence in wine; whilst Alexander the Great suffered his glory to be dimmed by drunken nocturnal revelries. Androcydes, a man famous for his wisdom, with a view to checking such deadly habits, wrote to him thus:—"When you are about

to drink wine, O king ! remember that you are going to drink the blood of the earth. Even as the hemlock is a poison to man, so also is excess in wine." And if Alexander had only followed his advice, he certainly would not have had to answer for slaying his friends Clitus and Calisthenes in his drunken fits.

Very little is now known respecting the precise flavour and aroma of the wines that commended themselves to the palate and appreciation of ancient communities, and any comparison with the various vintages of the present age can at best be only conjectural. But we see the high estimation in which this product of the vine was held by every people in every region from the earliest dawn of civilization. Red, white, and amber, were the primitive colours ; the red, it is said, was first grown in Chios. Age was deemed an important consideration, as essential for a full developement of quality ; yet after sixteen years, wine was mostly thought old enough, and thoroughly matured. " Old wine," notes Athenæus, " is preferred to new, as it is not only more pleasant, but is also better for health : it aids digestion more, and being lighter, it is itself more digestible. It is an excellent restorative, makes good blood,—red and flowing, and above all, it produces quiet and refreshing sleep."

" The Greeks," Dr. Becker assures us, " besides wine, knew of no other drink except water. Diodorus, indeed, relates that Dionysos invented a beverage from barley, *i.e.*, beer ; and this mead-like liquor was probably known to the Egyptians, like as the palm-wine in the palm regions of Asia ; but nowhere is it stated that such a brewage obtained a footing in Greece. Wine, therefore, was the common drink of the country, even of slaves, though what they got was mostly sorry stuff. In the very earliest ages it was regarded as the source of joy ; and agreeably to this idea, Musæus and Eumolpus made the virtuous to be rewarded in Hades by perpetual intoxication. Sobriety was not one of the Athenians' prime virtues ; even Plato was of opinion that a man ought to become drunk at the Dionysia. Symposia always ended in intoxication. . . . The festival of the Dionysia," further vouches the learned Professor, " was annually celebrated at Athens with much splendour and universal delight. On these anniversaries all sobriety or serious occupation was banished, and the eager population revelled in mirth and drunkenness, which was held as quite blameless,—indeed

considering it as a duty owing to the giver of the grape ; and the most sober-minded, bidding adieu to the stringency of habit, followed the maxim. Innumerable guests had poured to the festal scene from all the regions of Greece. Every house was kept open for the reception of distant friends ; not a tavern but what was too small to accommodate its crowd of visitors. Booths were erected in the streets and public places, and dealers of all sorts, jugglers, and strolling players, laden with apparatus and decorations, pressed forward, anxious to promote to their utmost powers the amusement of the public, and still more to fill their own purse, and pleasure was the sole aim of existence all the day long. Countless numbers paraded the streets in holiday dress, and wearing garlands of flowers ; and in every thoroughfare stood huge bowls filled with the gift of the god, and inviting all that liked to drink to their very hearts' content. Everywhere peals of laughter and boisterous mirth assailed the ear ; nought was to be seen but wild swarms of merry-makers, impudently caricaturing the pomp and ceremony of the official procession. The sight-seers of more humble pretensions found abundant food for amusement. Here a puppet-man had set up his little theatre, and with practised hand guided the hidden strings that set in motion the pigmy figures, which made the most grotesque grimaces, to the great delight of the children and nurses standing round. Here a juggler had pitched his tent, taking due precaution to stave off the too prying observer from his apparatus table, and his dexterous tricks were beheld by simple rustics with amazement. Not far off a Thessalian exhibited the wondrous agility of two girls, who made surprising leaps and somersaults right among several sharp swords stuck upright, till the beholders grew quite nervous with apprehension ; while the man himself, from time to time, opened wide his mouth, and ejected a stream of fiery sparks among the bewildered and applauding spectators. But most hearty laughter was heard round the show of a man exhibiting a number of monkeys, dressed in motley suits, with masks before their faces, who performed dances like so many well-behaved human beings. The trainer's baton had long kept them in order, and his man was intent on collecting small copper coins from the bystanders, when a mischievous wag amused himself with throwing a handful of nuts among the dancers, who in a twinkling, forgetting all duty and propriety, made a descent on the tempting prey, and began biting and scratching each other in the scramble for it, amid the laughter and amusement of the spectators. The confusion that ensued was a fine opportunity for the thieves and cut-purses, who were pursuing their avocations in great force, and levying contributions on the crowd, or at the tables of the

pedlars, where all sorts of clothes and ornaments, both false and genuine, were displayed for sale."—(*Metcalf's Translation.*)

The scene thus vividly and minutely described will probably be perused by many with equal interest and surprise ; for who could have supposed that the coarse and noisy merriment, the jugglery, the knavery, and mountebank buffoonery that for time out of mind ran riot at our own once-famous Bartlemy Fair, and which still lingers at provincial gatherings to the no small wonderment and delight of gaping rustics, had their origin and justification in similar if not identical revelry provided for the recreation of the multitude in the halcyon days of illustrious Athens itself? But so it is ; and we find in this striking incident, so well certified and hitherto so little known, further evidence, if need were, that human nature, unrestrained, is pretty much the same in every age and in every clime, prone to fun and mischief, and linking in its progress the social duties and pastimes of one cycle in close resemblance with those of another.

From Homer's statement of the dilution of the Maronean wine with twenty measures of water, and other similar authorities, some have inferred that the vinous produce of Greece possessed a degree of strength far surpassing any of the liquors of modern times, or of which we can well form an idea ; but it should be remembered that the wines in question were not only inspissated, but also highly impregnated with various aromatic ingredients, and had often contracted a repulsive bitterness from age, that rendered them unfit for use till they were lowered 'by a large addition of water. If they had equalled the purest alcohol in strength, the above reduction must have been more than enough ; but the strong heterogeneous taste they had acquired would render further dilution desirable, and, in truth, they may be said to have been used principally for the purpose of giving a vinous flavour to the water. As the antients were careful and judicious in the choice of their wines, so were they curious in apportioning water for dilution according to their respective strengths, and prepared in a particular manner before they were set on the table. This preliminary preparation of the wines, when skilfully done, greatly altered or improved their

natural flavour ; some drank them cold, others hot or tepid, neat or diluted ; whilst, by direction of the physician, valetudinarians took them warm. Yet these fastidious sages did not think it sufficient to reduce their wines with the purest cold water, but to gratify their palate they frequently added snow or ice, which was apt to vitiate the liquor by adherent impurities. The mode of cooling and diluting their wines by immersing in snow the vessel that contained them mixed with boiling water was a great improvement, for by this means they very quickly received a more pure, equal, and intense degree of coldness. Since water, then, entered so largely into their ordinary beverages, the ancients spared neither labour nor expense to obtain it in the purest state, and to ensure an abundant supply from those fountains and streams which were thought to yield it of the most grateful and salubrious quality. As wines so diluted were frequently taken warm, hot water became an indispensable article at their entertainments. Still, it may well be supposed that the use of such mawkish potations was not an habitual practice, but more often resorted to as a remedy for temporary derangements of the system, and by persons of infirm health, who partook of them as an article of regimen. The prescription, indeed, was not always adopted from choice, and so far was mere hot water from being considered a luxury by the Romans, that we find Seneca speaking of it as fit only for the sick, and as quite insufferable to those who were accustomed to the delicacies of life. In certain conditions of the stomach, however, as in that which proceed from an immoderate indulgence in the pleasures of the table, or from gross and indigestible food, it cannot be gainsaid that warm water will allay uneasy sensations more effectually than cold ; and as the Romans were notorious for their intemperance in eating, we may find in this fact the true explanation of their frequent calls for that pristine beverage.

The wines of Greece, of Sicily, of Italy, were the delight of the Romans, and as their cost varied either according to the particular vintage or the year of growth, a sort of certificate was often engraved on each amphora. With the progress of refinement came a cherished desire to render the wine more fragrant

and enjoyable by an infusion of fruits, flowers, spices, and other aromatic ingredients, the wisdom of which may well be doubted, since it often resulted in producing liquor hot to the palate and irritating to the stomach. But this ingenious artifice was not the only luxury resorted to by the antients, for they were accustomed, as just mentioned, to have their liquors cooled and iced in various ways, and the care in preserving snow for summer use must have obtained amongst oriental nations from the earliest ages. The practice, no doubt, originated with the Asiatics, but that it was long familiar both to the Greeks and Romans is abundantly manifest. When Alexander the Great besieged the town of Petra, in India, he directed thirty large trenches to be dug close together and filled them with snow, which being then covered closely with oak branches, remained a long time undissolved. Xenophon says it was necessary to procure snow to cool the wines in summer, which otherwise could not be drunk with pleasure. Various instances among the Eastern nations of this custom of cooling their liquors might be produced, more particularly among the Jews. Mount Hebron, which was perpetually covered with snow, supplied it abundantly to the residents of that district, from whence it was conveyed to Tyre. The Romans adopted a like expedient for conserving the snow they collected from the mountains, which, in the time of Seneca, had become an important article of merchandise at Rome, being sold, not only in shops appropriated to the purpose, but even hawked about the streets, and the modern inhabitants are still supplied with it in a similar manner. It is amusing to note the loud lament of Seneca with respect to this very harmless species of indulgence.

"To what a pitch," he exclaims, "have our artificial wants brought us, that common water, which nature has caused to flow in such profusion, and destined to be the common beverage of man and other animals, should, by the ingenuity of luxury, be converted into an article of traffic, and sold at a stated price! The Lacedæmonians banished perfumers from their city and territory because of the waste of oil occasioned by their trade. What would they have done if they had seen our shops and storehouses for snow, and so many beasts of burthen employed in carrying this commodity, dirtied and discoloured by the straw in which it is kept? You may behold certain lean fellows, wrapped up to the chin to defend them from the cold, and pale and sickly in appear-

ance, who not only drink, but even eat snow, putting lumps of it into their cups during the intervals of drinking. Do you imagine this to be thirst? It is a true fever, and of the most malignant kind."

These and other like declamations, however, passed unheeded; the usage became universal: nor was it confined to the summer months, but by many was continued through the depth of winter, as is still the case in the south of Italy, where iced water has become a prime necessity, and is sought for at all seasons with an avidity which, to a native of our northern clime, appears at first view quite unaccountable.

"It is from a volcano," remarked the observant Dr. Irvine, "that the inhabitants are abundantly supplied with this coveted refreshment. The noise and tumult at the houses where the snow is sold as fast as it arrives from Etna is incredible, and even alarming to a stranger; and I thought, the first time, that nothing less than murder could have occurred within, seeing the doors besieged by so clamorous a mob. When the thermometer is at 88° of Fahrenheit in the shade, there is something in this eagerness which we can understand; but in this country, when snow is lying on the ground, when cold and damp winds send one shivering for shelter, even then the Sicilian must have his iced water. There is no weather so cold as to drive him from his wonted indulgence: he seems as if resolved to make the greater cold expel the less."—"The use," observes Francesco Redi, "of snow and ice as a luxury among the Greeks and Romans is well known; but in modern times it has only been revived in our age, and perhaps with too much excess. It was not known in the days of Ariosto: they used then to put their wines for coolness into wells. We have not, however, arrived to such a pitch as the antients. From Petronius we learn that water cooled with snow was poured over the hands of those at table; and Sabellus, whom Martial speaks of, made his guests put their naked feet on a marble floor colder than ice itself."

At the banquets of heroic times each guest had a separate cup; and larger ones and purer wine were presented to the chiefs, or those friends whom the master of the feast wished to distinguish. It was also a mark of respect to keep their cups always replenished, that they might drink as freely and frequently as they desired. An uncommon dish was introduced to the sound of the flute, and the servitors were crowned with flowers. (*Macrobius*). At the conclusion of the repast, pure wine was handed round; but before it was tasted, a portion of it was

poured on the floor or table, as an oblation to Jupiter and the gods; and the cup was always filled to the brim, as it was held disrespectful to offer any thing in sacrifice but what was full and perfect. Hence, the goblets were said to be crowned with wine. The master of the house did not necessarily preside at the feast. That dignity was determined by lot, and imposed the duty of providing, not only that each guest received his portion of wine, but also that he drank it. To taste a cup and hand it to a friend was a courteous salutation, of which the reciprocal part was to finish the contents of the proffered goblet. In all matters relating to the formalities of the table the authority of the president was absolute, and none durst dispute his mandates so long as he remained in the company,—the rule being either to drink or to be gone; *aut bibat, aut abeat*. “A larger beaker there,” cried Glaucon (master of the feast), “that will hold at least ten cyathi. We will drink in a circle. What’s the harm if we do get a little wetted? The earth drinks, the trees and plants drink, and as they are refreshed by the water of heaven, so is the spirit of man cheered by wine!” and he emptied the goblet without drawing breath.—(*Becker.*) The Muse, too, of Anacreon pursued the theme in a similar strain:—

“The dark earth drinks the falling rain,
 Trees drain the moistened earth again;
 Ocean drinks the mountain gales,
 Ocean’s self the sun inhales,
 And the sun’s bright rays as soon
 Are swallow’d by the thirsty moon.
 All nature drinks! If I would sip,
 Why dash the nectar from my lip?”

Every thing mundane, indeed, is said to drink, and so must man drink to take his proper part in this fair and thirsty creation. The moral is further urged by Xenophon in his *Symposion* when he writes, “The earth drinks, the plants drink; and as they are refreshed by the water of heaven, so is the spirit of man cheered by wine. It lulls our cares to sleep, as poppy-juice and mandrake do the senses, and wakes us up to merriment as oil nourishes the flame.” This ancient relic of Grecian song has been recently minted anew, and thus ingeniously amplified:—

"The earth is a toper, and drinks up the rain,
 And though she drinks deeply is soon thirsty again ;
 The trees, too, are topers, and drink from their birth,
 And flourish the more they can drain from the earth.
 Fair Diana the prude slyly tipples by night, —
 'Tis sipping the dew-drop makes her face shine so bright.
 The jolly-faced Sun, too,—believe it or not,
 So fervid and glorious is yet a sly sot ;
 With dews and with vapours he moistens his lips,—
 The clouds can best tell you how much the rogue sips.
 The air that we breathe would be parching and dry,
 And nothing would flourish beneath the broad sky,
 Did ocean and rivers no moisture supply ;
 But hail, rain, and snow the secret reveals
 From earth's ample fountains how freely it steals.
 Then let us the voice of Creation obey, —
 Take enough of good liquor to moisten your clay ;
 You may censure the bottle,—but pray tell me why,
 When all Nature is toping should man remain dry ?"

When the richer wines were circulated, it was usual for the person presiding to begin the round by pledging the principal parties ; that is, he tasted the wine and saluted the company, or the guest on his right hand if a person of distinction, to whom the cup was then passed, and who was expected to finish its contents. To drink in this manner was considered a proof of friendship, and when so presented it was termed a bumper glass.* The Greeks, remarks Cicero, drank first in honour of the gods, and then of their friends : they began with small cups, and ended with larger. It was also a common practice at the convivial meetings of both nations to drink to the health of eminent individuals, as well as to that of absent friends.

The degree of respect or attachment entertained for those so toasted, was supposed to be indicated by the greater or less number of cups which the proposer filled out to their honour ; and a lover drank to his mistress as many cups as there were letters in her name. The guests were further served with garlands of roses and other flowers in season, which they wore

* The word *bumper*, which has sadly puzzled etymologists, is merely a slight corruption of the old French phrase *bon per*, signifying a boon companion. To drink a cup of good fellowship, or bumper-health, may therefore be regarded as strictly synonymous with the Grecian equivalent phrase.

not only on their heads, but sometimes also about their necks and arms. The pleasures of wine were heightened by those of harmony. A lyre was handed round, to which the guests sang, separately or in chorus, satirical, amorous, or bacchanalian lyrics; whilst others exercised their ingenuity by questions couched in the ambiguity of fallacies, in riddles, or in anagrams. They wanted for no manner of diversion whilst at dinner, which ordinarily terminated with music and antique dances, instead of the gladiatorial combats of earlier times,—

“ When, tossing round the sparkling brim
 Their locks of floating gold,
 With bacchant dance and choral hymn
 Return the nymphs of old.”—*O. W. Holmes.*

In the days of Homer but little variety seems to have attended the festive board. Roast-beef was the ordinary fare of the Trojan heroes, and with them it was held to be no degradation to kill their own meat and dress their own dinners. In the course of time, as commerce extended and the arts of life advanced, the repasts of the Greeks became conspicuous for the multiplicity of dishes, as well as for the skill and refinement exercised in their preparation. The gratification of the palate, previously deemed unworthy of notice, now grew to be a matter of paramount importance, and poets and philosophers vied with each other in the composition of voluminous treatises on the art of cookery. Aristotle is said to have exercised his genius in the compilation of a code of laws for the table; and the Romans in his day preferring fish above every other kind of food, he bestowed much inventive thought on the best mode of preparing them. The sturgeon, the lamprey, the scari, the turbot, the mullet, the whiting, were in principal esteem, and fetched enormous prices. Juvenal mentions a mullet sold at 48*l.*, and Macrobius another which cost in the market 64*l.* At table the Romans often weighed their fish alive; and to see them expire was reckoned a piece of high entertainment. Although attended with ruinous expense, banqueting had now become an established affair. Incredible sums were lavished on ostentatious entertainments for the gratification of emperors and servile courtiers. At

one of his entertainments, we are told by Suetonius, Augustus introduced as a game a kind of lottery, by selling tickets, or sealed tablets apparently equivalent, at the same price, which, when opened or unsealed, entitled the purchasers to things of very unequal value ; as, for instance,—one to a hundred gold pieces, another to a toothpick, a third to a purple robe, etc.; and according to Herodotus, a skeleton was sometimes introduced at feasts, or the representation of one, in imitation of the Egyptians ; when the master of the feast, directing attention to it, used to say, “Drink and be merry, for such we shall all become after death.” During the intervals of drinking they sometimes played at dice, or diverted themselves at ‘odds and evens.’ The character of a gambler, however, was held to be infamous.—(*Cato*.)

Supper, long the principal meal among the Romans, and often sumptuously served, was supposed by some to have been anciently the only one ; but a light dinner, or luncheon, at which no wine was drunk, was usually provided about mid-day, and, at first, they sat at their tables, as did also the Greeks. In process of time, however, a new custom of reclining on couches was introduced from the subjugated nations of the East, and obtaining a ready adoption, equal taste and magnificence were soon displayed in their construction.—(*Valerius Maximus*.) The frames were ingeniously inlaid with ivory, tortoise-shell, or the precious metals ; the feet being formed of solid ivory or bronze, and the coverlets of purple cloth skilfully wrought with appropriate embroidery. The cushions, too, were often of the softest down, and the richest stuffs covered them ; many were composed entirely of silver, and even golden beds were not unknown.

“ There the well-dress'd guests recline
On couches rich with ivory feet ;
And on their purple cushions dine,
Which rich Sardinian carpets meet.”—*Plato*.

Some notion may be gathered of the magnitude and costliness of their public festivals from the statement of Plutarch, that Julius Cæsar once, in a treat which he gave to the people, provided no less than 22,000 couches, each sufficiently capacious to accommodate three persons. According to Varro, the appro-

priate number to invite on select social occasions should be not fewer than three, or more than nine, as expressive of the number of the Graces or the Muses.

“ With what sublimest joy from noisy town
At rural seat Lucretius retir'd
Where the white poplar and the lofty pine
Join neighbouring boughs,—sweet hospitable shade!
There with selected friends were pass'd the hours
In mirth innocuous and alternate verse.
Choicest nectarian juice crown'd massive bowls
Of fragrant scent attractive,—taste divine !
Whether from Formian grape depress'd, Falern
Or Setine, Massic, Gauran, or Sabine,
Lesbian or Cecuban, the cheering bowl
Mov'd briskly round, and spur their heighten'd wit.”

DE FOE'S *Wine*: a Poem.

A comparison instituted between the forms and usages of these early times and the recognised customs of the present day would reveal numerous coincidences. The arrangements of our banquets and public dinners, the succession and composition of the different courses, the manner of filling our glasses, of pledging our friends, and of drinking particular healths, are all evidently descended from the Greeks and Romans ; and although certain peculiarities in our climate and habits may have rendered the practice of bumper-cups and undiluted liquors more frequent than commendable, yet the ordinary distribution of wines at our feasts cannot be considered as differing greatly from that here mentioned. Exception, however, must be made of one striking contrast that existed between the customs of the two nations : the Romans allowed their women to be present at their festive meetings, but forbade them the use of wine ; while the Greeks permitted them to drink wine, but excluded them from all entertainments at which any but near relatives were present. In more primitive times still, the females of the family occasionally appeared, performing the office of cup-bearers, and other table services.

When Rome was ruled by kings, men under thirty years of age were forbidden to drink wine. In the days of the Republic that prohibition was abolished ; yet such was the austerity of

public morals, that neither government would permit women to take so much as a single sip, and husbands could claim a divorce if their wives ventured to indulge in the forbidden solace even for once. Infractions of such restrictive laws seem to have been jealously guarded, by young Rome at least, as we find it related that the wife of Mecenius, having drunk some wine from the vat, was slain by her husband, and that he was absolved from the murder by Romulus. The consul Fabius Pictor also mentions the cruel fact, that a certain lady having purloined a purse in which the keys of the wine-cellar were kept, was starved to death by her own family. Towards the declension of the Commonwealth, however, and under the first emperors, the women were not only accustomed to take wine, but carried the excess of it as far as the sterner sex.

In the time of regal sway Roman men kept pretty sober,—not, perhaps, so much from virtuous self-denial as from the scanty supply; for at that period wine was very scarce in Italy, and what little there was of it, was of a very indifferent quality. No sooner, however, had cultivation of the vine made a notable advance under the republic, and still more so under the empire, than the Romans fostered the habit of taking deep draughts from their cups. Under the former *régime*, again, to drink wine before dinner was thought immoral and reprehensible, as none but confirmed tipplers would desire a matutinal draught. The carousing propensity did not commence until that meal was over, when, and especially under the emperors, social conviviality had degenerated into a fearful vice not easily eradicated. And here may be aptly applied the Scythian proverb,—“The more the Parthians drank, the thirstier they got.” Such senseless dissipation, indeed, was then cherished as if it were a sacred service, and earnest rivalry for the bacchanalian championship was jealously maintained.

The vine was not planted in the environs of Rome much before the year 600 U.C., and until then it is doubtful whether the Romans were much accustomed to the use of wine, for the constant predatory warfare with neighbouring states in which they were previously involved, must have prevented them from

giving that attention to its culture indispensable for bringing the produce to any degree of perfection. Observing the tendency of the vine to shoot aloft and distribute its branches to a considerable distance from the parent root, they became impressed with the notion that the most appropriate mode of training the plant was to favour this natural disposition by attaching it to lofty trees, thinking that grapes so grown were most likely to attain a full and equal maturity. The trees selected for the purpose were the poplar, the elm, the ash, or the maple. Their height usually was from 30 to 40 feet, but in warmer or sheltered localities they grew much higher; and if we may credit Florentinus, there were in some parts of Bithynia vines trained in this manner upon trees 60 feet high, which, he says, far from showing any tendency to degenerate, were productive, in fact, of much better wine. It is, however, admitted that only in very rich soils was this practice permissible, and that in poor lands it was advisable to reduce the trees into pollards 8 feet high from the ground. Pliny tells us, and both Cato and Columella agree with him, that "the experience of ages sufficiently proves that wines of the highest quality can be grown only from vines attached to trees, and that even then the choicest kinds are produced by the upper portions of the plant, whilst greater abundance marked the yield of the lower branches,—such being the beneficial effects of elevating the vine," a system followed in Calabria to this day. At first the vines were mostly reared by fastening them on the branches of the poplar and the elm; whence these trees were said to be married to the vines, and the vines to them. By the same poetical licence the name of *Cœlebs* was conferred on the plane-tree, to which the vine was never united. In Campania it was commonly attached to the poplar, and as it ascended the several branches, held on with its knotted cane till it reached the very summit; the height being sometimes so stupendous, that the vintager, when hired, was wont to stipulate for a funeral pile and grave at the owner's charge. Valerianus Cornelianus regarded it as a most remarkable fact, that single vines were known to encompass villas and country houses, with their shoots and creeping tendrils ever on the stretch. In the porticoes of Livia

at Rome, the leaf-clad trellises of a single vine protected by its shade the entire walk in the open air, and its fruit when fermented gave twelve amphoræ of must. It was thought to be a mark of crass ignorance to suspend the vine with a cord beneath the branches of the tree, to the great risk of strangling it, as it merely required to be supported by a withe of osier, and on no account to be tightly laced.

As Italian wine could not, for long afterwards, emulate the richer vintages of other climes, it was held in such disdain by fastidious Roman palates, that the senate deemed it expedient to prohibit the importation of costly foreign growths, until wine-making in Italy should recover the high standard it reached in the time of Augustus. Under the high-training system then practised, the wine needed exceptionally skilful treatment to adequately improve the quality of the native product. An anecdote recorded of Cineas, when on an embassy from king Pyrrhus to the Roman senate, shows how much this was felt; for, accustomed as he was to the Greek method of low training and high quality, he could not conceive how vines reared on straight poplars and stately elms, and often forming tall and lengthened avenues, could possibly afford a beverage worth drinking. When Italian-grown wine was set before him—assuredly none of the worst,—he jocosely remarked, that “it did not surprise him at all that the parent of such wine should be hanged on so lofty a gibbet.”

It is a curious circumstance, that scarcely one of the localities famous for the superiority of its products in the time of Pliny now yields a vintage of merit; whilst it was early ascertained, that when transplanted the Falernian vine invariably degenerated. The causes of such changes are not attributable alone to defects of cultivation, and the consequent deterioration of the plant, but much may be due to local conditions, geological and social,—the alteration of the earth's surface and levels,—the disappearance of forests,—the formation of canals, and other operations which have affected the drainage and the soil, and even partially influenced the temperature and the climate. Yet few parts of Italy at any time proved unfriendly to the vine, and it

flourished most in that portion of the coast to which, from its extraordinary fertility and delightful climate, the name of Campania Felix was given. The exuberant powers of the rich and inexhaustible soil of the whole of this district has called forth the eulogies of every writer who has had occasion to mention it.

"The region of Campania," says Lucius Florus, "is the finest of all countries, not only in Italy, but in the whole world. Nothing can be softer than its air ; nothing brighter than its floral triumphs twice in the year ; nothing more fertile than its teeming soil : and therefore is it said to have been an object of contention between Ceres and Bacchus for its possession. Nothing, indeed, can be more salubrious than its sea-breathing shores, or more prolific than its lakes of Lucrinus and Avernus, or more luxurious than the thermal springs of Baiæ. Here are the vine-covered hills of Gaurus, Falernus, Massicus, and Vesuvius the finest of all,—the rival, as it were, of the fires of Ætna."

From this district the Romans obtained the vintages which they valued most highly, and of which the fame extended to all parts of the world. Pliny informs us that "Augustus, and most of the leading men of his time, gave the preference to the Setine wine, from the vineyards above the Forum Appii, as being of all kinds the least apt to derange the stomach. Formerly the Cecuban, described by Galen as a generous, durable wine, but maturing only after a long term of years, was most esteemed ; but it has now lost its repute, partly from the negligence of the growers, and partly from the limited extent of the vineyard." When new, it was rather heady, and belonged to the rough sweet class. It apparently was a favourite wine with Horace, who speaks of it as being often reserved for important festivals. "It is not a little singular," Galen further remarks, "that none of the grapes of Campania are at all pleasant to the taste."

Among the various wines in most esteem at Rome were those prepared and perfumed with myrrh. We also find mention of wormwood wine, which was made of Pontic wormwood in the proportion of one pound to forty sextarii of must ; it was then boiled down until reduced to one-third : it was also produced by steeping slips of wormwood in the wine. Among the wines in modern use, Madeira has been conjectured to offer the nearest resemblance to Falernian, than which no wine has in any age

acquired such extensive celebrity, or more truly merited the appellation of 'immortal' conferred upon it by the poet Martial; at least, of all ancient wines it is the one most generally known in modern times, for while other eminent growths are overlooked or forgotten, few classic readers will be found who have not learned something of the Falernian. But although the name is thus familiar to most, few attempts have been made to determine its exact nature and properties; and little more is understood concerning it than that it was both strong and rough when new, and that the ancients valued it highly, kept it until it became very old, often mixed it with a weaker wine, or with honey which rendered it delicious, and produced it only when they wished to regale their dearest friends. Pliny, indeed, was of opinion that the Falernian was injurious to health when too new or too old. "At fifteen years," he says, "it begins to be of medium age. There is no wine that quickens the action of the venous system so much as this: it acts astringently on the bowels, and is nutritious to the body;" and all writers agree in describing this wine as very strong and durable, and so rough in its early state that it could not be drunk with pleasure, requiring many years storage before it was sufficiently mellow. Horace even terms it a 'fiery' wine, and calls for water from the spring to moderate its strength: and Persius applies to it the epithet 'indomitum,' in allusion to its heady quality. The excellence of this wine, probably, was mainly due to the loose volcanic soil on which it was produced, and its fame must descend to the latest ages along with the works of the mighty masters of the lyre who have sung its praises.

"Oh, how perilously sweet 'tis to follow thee, Lenæus,
Thee the god who wreathes his temples with the
Vine-leaf for his crown!"—LORD LYTTON'S *Horace*.





SECTION IV.

“ Bounteous Bacchus !

To pay thee homage and receive thy blessings
The British mariner quits his native shore,
And ventures through the trackless vast abyss
Plowing the ocean; whilst the upheav'd oak
With beaked prow rides tilting o'er the waves,
Shook by the jarring winds, till she arrives
At those blest climes thou favourest the most.
Whether at Lusitanian sultry coasts,
Or lofty Teneriffe,—Palma, Ferro,
Cyprus, or at the Celtiberean shores,
With gazing pride he thinks himself arriv'd
At Eden's gates ; for there the purple grapes
In lengthen'd clusters pendent grace the vines
Innumerable. In fields grotesque and wild
They with implicit curls the elm entwine,
And load with fruit divine the spreading boughs,—
Sight most delicious !”

DE FOE'S *Wine*: a Poem, 1709.

Modern Wines : their Character and Qualities.



WINE is a production of the vegetable world, and is gifted with many beneficent properties. It possesses an inherent power of evoking gladness and tranquillity for a jaded and overwrought system, enhancing its vitality, and shedding the rays of consolation and equanimity on the broken in spirit,—ineffable desiderata, which base their roots in the innermost depths of human nature. In every clime, and under every sun, the inventive genius of man has always contrived to provide a sustaining panacea for the weary and listless monotonies of life, no less than for ‘other ills the flesh is heir to ;’ and among all the endless variety of stimulating and renovating products known, the oldest, most valued, and most widely diffused is the fermented fruit of the vine, whose distinctive appellation still lingers in singular unity of sound and significance through all

the dialects of Aryan origin.* Vinous extracts, it is true, may be drawn from the juices of any vegetable, as well as from all ripe and succulent fruits ; but correctly speaking, the term wine is exclusively restricted to the product of the vine, as no fruit but the grape contains tartaric acid or its combinations ; in all others malic acid is the principal characteristic.

The ordinary effects of wine, drank in moderation, are to stimulate digestion, exhilarate the spirits, raise the bodily temperature, quicken the circulation, and promote the general health ; and if taken in excess, to produce intoxication. In many diseases it is well known to be of essential service for its therapeutic properties, and in almost all cases of languor, intermittent and defective circulation, or great prostration of vital energy, experience has shown it to be a more grateful and efficacious cordial than can be supplied from the whole class of aromatic compounds. Artificial for the most part in its nature, it is often as much dependent for its excellence upon careful treatment, as upon the special qualities of any particular growth. Gradations, therefore, in taste, body, and odour are unavoidable in its manufacture, and these, doubtless, originate chiefly in the peculiarities of varying soils and aspects, since there can be no question that they continue more or less manifest in the produce of particular localities, notwithstanding great differences in the shelter that might be afforded, and the irregular warmth of the seasons. Even were the plants identical in their species, inequalities might exist sufficient to account for the fruit not being always precisely similar in character or quality with each other. It is obvious, moreover, that in the process of manufacture quality must always be affected by every change of condition in which the fermentation of the juice takes place. It is obscured by the use of bad methods, it is often eclipsed by the injurious admixtures to which wine is frequently subjected after it is made.

Though in describing wines it is not unusual to speak of the 'flavour of the fruit,' yet none of the red class can properly be

* Greek *oinos* ; Latin *vinum* ; Gothic *vein* ; Russian *wino* ; middle High German *win* ; Low Dutch *wi* ; English *wine* ; Italian and Spanish *vino* ; Portuguese *vinho* ; etc.

said to retain the taste and aroma of the grapes from which they are made ; whilst white muscadine wines, in whatever soils they may be grown, always partake more or less of the innate quality of the fruit. This is particularly observable in the produce of the Frontignan vine. All wines, however, possess what is called the vinous flavour, emanating from the alcohol which they contain, and modified in the different varieties according to the proportions in which that ingredient is combined with the aqueous, acidulous, saline, mucilaginous, and aromatic principles. In good wine none of these should predominate, but the whole ought to form a perfect compound, having its distinct and peculiar flavour, which should be full and entire, not cloying on the palate, or leaving any strange or unpleasant after-taste. In the production of certain descriptions, however, we are obliged to forego this kind of excellence, in order to obtain other essential and appropriate properties.

Alcohol is the sole element of strength in wine, but it is not the cause of vinosity : this results from the union of spirit, sugar, and sundry inherent vegetive elements,—the vinous flavour and alcoholic strength in combination with its bouquet constituting the peculiarity and true value of mature wine. Vinosity in its more perfect sense is found to reside chiefly in red wines, and it is this property which imparts the tonic, nutritive, restorative, and beneficial effects that characterize them. Such as are richest in this particular constitute the highest grades ; and it is from the region indicated by a thermo-metrical line passing over Greece, Italy, southern France, and parts of Spain, come the finest growths, intermediate between the acid and watery products of the more northern parts of Europe, and the syrupy liqueurs produced within the southern limits of the wine zone. It was long considered as a sound maxim, that no wine retaining any approach to full vinosity could be made to bear the stress of sea-carriage without being previously subjected to some artificial process. The application of heat was found to spoil its specific flavour, and the preservation of even high-class wines was compassed by suitable additions of spirit, the strongest vintages receiving the largest proportion. Could natural wines of high

vinosity be got to bear distant transit without deterioration, a desideratum would be supplied of inestimable value. What, however, has been hitherto thought unattainable may yet be found susceptible of achievement, if not already accomplished by recent consignments from the luxuriant vineyards of the Grecian Archipelago, whose unalcoholized wines of high strength and purity stand prominently forward in their novelty for British appreciation and use. Practical minds concur in thinking that it requires the concentrated attention of a lifetime to thoroughly master the science of wine-making ; this may be well-nigh the truth, yet it is hardly too much to say that better wine and more of it is now to be had than, within human memory, was ever known before.

In some points of view white wines may be regarded as more perfect than the red,—at least they appear to contain fewer elements of decomposition. The strong red sorts, which are fermented with the hulls, and often with the stalks of the grapes, do not attain their highest condition until after they have deposited a considerable portion of their tartar, tannin, and colouring matter. White varieties, on the contrary, even when of inferior quality, will remain much longer quiescent, probably because they contain less mucilaginous and extractive matter, and, when well fermented, may be preserved for an indefinite length of time. Usually, however, they yield to the red in respect of flavour and perfume. The colour of red wines varies from a light pink to a deep purple tint, approaching to black ; of the white kinds, some are nearly colourless, but the greater proportion have a yellow or amber tinge : they deposit a small portion of tartar, but seldom much extractive matter. The *fine* wines are distinguishable from the *ordinary* by their character, aroma, and body ; they always improve by long keeping ; but many of the *secondary* sorts, with due care and management, will retain their qualities unimpaired for a considerable period. The *common* wines constitute the lowest class, and are seldom known beyond the limits of the district where they are produced. Weak vintages, which generally contain an excess of mucilage, are the most liable to spoil ; they often turn acid and ropy, and

commonly end in becoming vapid and worthless. The maturity which different wines may acquire, and continue in a healthy state, can only be determined by experience ; but, in general, the strong wines will more slowly advance to maturity and be more durable than the weaker, which more quickly ripen, and sooner degenerate and decay ; for wines, like animal and vegetable bodies, have their different stages of youth, maturity, and decay. All wines, therefore, especially the weaker kinds, either spontaneously or by repeated fermentations, will ultimately degenerate into a vapid acid kind of vinegar. This fact probably gave rise to the artificial preparation of a more perfect and pungent vinegar, which is of a very different nature from the other. This is a remarkable second production from wine, possessing very singular and useful properties, which can only be obtained by a regular process from such liquors as have passed through a previous fermentation. There is a singular analogy, indeed, between the process of making wine and vinegar. The former is prepared by the fermentation of the juices of grapes equally promoted, and suitable to their strength and nature ; the latter is obtained from a repeated and suppressed fermentation of a liquor which has already passed through that process. The strength of the wine will be greater in proportion to the consistence and richness of the grapes and the degree of fermentation ; the strength of the vinegar likewise equally depends on the strength of the wine employed, and the second and suppressed fermentation of it. By these operations the vinegar loses entirely its former qualities, and acquires others very different, and some quite opposite to those attending its vinous state. In the distillation of wine the spirituous parts first ascend, and if a lighted candle be applied to them, they immediately catch the flame. In the distillation of vinegar the light and aqueous parts first ascend, and after them the strong and more heavy acid parts, and both immediately extinguish the flame of a candle. The former greatly increases the motion and heat of the blood, and intoxicates ; the latter checks it : instead of inebriating, it corrects this quality in the wine ; and when applied externally to the nostrils, or taken internally, excites and revives

in some measure those who are oppressed and lethargic from spirituous liquors. Spirit of wine mixed with the serum of the blood immediately coagulates it, and spirit of vinegar more powerfully dissolves than any other liquor.* The antients were not only well acquainted with the medicinal properties of vinegar in many diseases, but with its efficacy in preventing them. It was the common drink of the Roman soldiers, and every one was obliged to carry with him a bottle of it; occasionally mixed with water it was particularly grateful in a hot climate, and useful in allaying thirst.

All wine, wherever might be the seat of its production, contains a determinate quantity of spirit, either inherent or introduced by the merchant to fortify it for transit. The average of sixty-six varieties submitted as imported to official analysis, is stated by sir James Emerson Tennent, in his book on the *Wine Duties*, to have been seventeen per cent., and the proportion of alcohol to be in—

	Pure Alcohol.		Proof Spirit.		Pure Alcohol.		Proof Spirit.
	per cent.	22 equal to			per cent.	19 equal to	
Port wine		22	38'55	Colares Port		19	33'29
White Hermitage	17	„	29'79	Madeira . . .	24	„	42'00
Sauterne . .	14	„	24'53	Sherry . . .	20	„	35'00
Masdeu . .	19	„	33'29	South African .	22	„	38'55
Malaga . .	18	„	31'54	Marsala . . .	25	„	43'81
Teneriffe . .	19	„	33'29	Etna Port . .	30	„	52'57

but to establish the principle of vinous spirituosity on a correct and permanent basis, in furtherance of the objects comprised in the recent Act relating to the import of foreign wines, the British Government in 1861 directed a special commission of inquiry for the purpose of ascertaining the respective natural strength of wines in the principal vine-growing countries of Europe. The official Parliamentary returns show that of fifty-six samples of French produce eight yielded less than 18° of proof spirit, forty-four less than 26°, and only four exceeded that limit; in Portugal, of thirteen samples twelve were under 26°; in Spain, of eighteen samples three only were under 26°; in Hungary, ten out of eleven were under 26°; in Germany, of seven samples tested all were under 26°; in Austria, Switzer-

* Sir Edward Barry.

land, Bavaria, Italy, and Sicily, fifteen samples were tried, four proving under 18° , ten under 26° , and one above that strength. According to analyses made on the Centigrade system of Gay-Lussac by M. Duplais, a French authority of the first rank, the greatest amount of alcohol in the red wines of Bordeaux is eleven per cent., or $18\cdot5$ of proof spirit ; whilst the least is $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 8 per cent. The wines of Burgundy and Champagne, those of Chatillon, of Orleans, the Lyonnais, and the eastern Pyrenees, all contain less than thirteen per cent. of pure alcohol. It is only the products of the south of France that exceed this proportion, and they hold only seventeen per cent., or $26\cdot5$ proof spirit. For the purposes of export, however, it is customary for the growers to add spirit to the wine, to enable it to bear the journey when shipped in the cask. The Médoc wines intended for the English market are extensively so treated, in order to render them acceptable to palates long accustomed to Ports, and other strong alcoholic drinks.

That the wines of France constituted the chief beverage of the wealthier orders in England from the fourteenth to the first half of the eighteenth century, is fully established by the testimony of historians, as well as by official documents. When the many laudable attempts to naturalize the culture of the vine in this country succumbed to the unpropitious influences of a humid and variable climate, the community were entirely dependent for their supplies on the product of neighbouring and more genial states ; and certainly, whilst good foreign wine was procurable at moderate prices, little advantage could accrue from a desire to supplant its use by costly native growths, for of all annual crops that of the vine is the most precarious. It is a well-authenticated fact, that even in Portugal and Spain, only one year on the average out of four is favourable to a really good vintage. If the grape will not always ripen even in Champagne, it must be absurd to expect it to thrive in an atmosphere so inconstant as that of Britain, and any futile diversion of our cereal lands into vineyards would be a shallow endeavour to reverse the obvious designs of nature. In many provinces of France the vine does little more than repay its cost of cultivation ; and

it is a curious fact, that in the thirty-five years from 1820 to 1854, only fourteen prime vintages were harvested in that propitious region. In Normandy and Picardy, where the heat of the summer is greater than in England, vine culture has been gradually relinquished, and all the renewed efforts to establish it in this country, although they appeared to succeed for a time, have ultimately failed.

Stowe, indeed, assures us, that "In many parts of England they grow vines, and make wine; and in the reign of Richard the Second, such was the abundance of grapes in Windsor Park, that the king sold and made money by them." Yet even this notable progress, promising as it appeared at the time, was not sufficient to lead to any permanent beneficial results; and the several further attempts in more recent days to revive this species of culture, and to manufacture wines from English grapes, proved equally unsuccessful. We are told, it is true, by Philpotts, that "one Captain Toke hath so industriously and elegantly cultivated our English vines at Godington, in Kent, that the wine pressed and extracted out of their grapes seems not only to parallel, but almost to outrival that of France;" and, for some years, the duke of Norfolk made a considerable quantity of wine from a vineyard at Arundel Castle, which, according to the report of a writer in the *Museum Rusticum*, excelled much of the Burgundy imported into this country, though he candidly admits it was not "of quite so fine a flavour as the wines of Beaune." Aubrey describes a similar plantation at Chart Park, near Dorking, in Surrey, another seat of the Norfolk family: "Here was a vineyard supposed to have been planted by the hon. Charles Howard, who, it is said, erected his residence among the vines. The project flourished for some time, and tolerably good wine was made from the produce; but after the death of the noble owner in 1763, it was much neglected, and nothing remained but the bare name." Dr. John Wright, impressed with a like opinion, offers similar testimony: "I was many years ago at Pains Hill, in Surrey, when Mr. Hamilton had a beautiful vineyard there, and made from it elegant wine. The soil and situation we allow are good, but yet something—

perhaps the sun of the south—is wanting. It seemeth that every climate hath useful indigenous productions of its own, that might cost more than their true value if forced in another.”—*Essay on Wines.*

In order to give the experiment one more chance of success, sir Richard Worsley, about the end of the last century, procured some of the most hardy species of vines, planted them in a rocky soil, with a southern exposure, at St. Laurence, in the Isle of Wight, and engaged a vine-dresser from France to superintend their culture. The result was, that in one or two favourable years a tolerable crop of grapes was garnered; but eventually the cold springs weakened the plants and blighted the produce; the scheme soon fell out of favour, and was finally abandoned. Still, it must be confessed, there is room, with a little good management, for the cultivation of the vine in suitable places in the open air, and there are many eligible spots where it might be profitably grown. This comparative neglect is the more to be regretted if we take into consideration the numerous farm buildings, sheltered cottages, and other such erections throughout the land, which for the most part present nothing but bare walls. In many such instances the surrounding soil would be found suitable to the growth of the grape; but even where this may not be the case, a border of ten or twelve feet of artificial compound could be provided at no great cost of time or trouble. The attention required for training and pruning would furnish pleasant occupation and amusement in hours of relaxation from severer toil, and the result would well repay the grower for his pains. It is further said,—

“That vineyards have been frequent in England is well known, and it is the opinion of the most experienced in this way that the southern parts of this island might produce vines equal to those of France. Thus of your ordinary white grapes you may make a good white sort of wine; of the red grapes, a Claret. The white kinds, not too ripe, give a good Rhenish taste, and are wonderfully cooling; and a sort of muscadel grapes, growing now in many parts of England, may be brought, by the help of a little loaf-sugar to feed on, to produce a curious sweet wine, little differing from Canary, and altogether as wholesome and as pleasant. So that, with some charge, labour, and industry, we might

well furnish ourselves with what we are now beholden for at great expense, hazard of the seas, and a vast deal more toil and labour than this would require. Nothing but want of skill and perseverance can hinder us from making those wholesome liquors equal to, if not exceed, what, to the great exhausting of our treasure, to the hindering the circle of inland trade particularly, we have for many years fetched from abroad. Nay, I must take leave to affirm those liquors produced of our natural growth are not only as pleasant in taste if rightly made as any other, but far more agreeable to English constitutions. Contributing to health and lively vigour they lengthen years, and free old age from those calamities that adulterated foreign wines and liqueurs make it obnoxious to."—GRAHAM'S *Art of making Wine from Fruit of English growth*.

The union that subsisted between England and the northern provinces of France after the Norman conquest, but especially on the acquisition of Guienne in 1152, naturally led to an interchange of commodities between the two countries. Accordingly we find, that in two years from this date the trade in wines with Bordeaux had commenced ; and in 1273 no less than 8,846 tuns were imported from Gascony and Anjou, the duty levied at that period being only two shillings the tun. The retail price of this wine in London in 1300 was threepence per gallon, and beer one penny. At one time seventy-three vessels arrived, each having on board nineteen tuns of wine, of which the Crown claimed one tun before and another behind the mast. In 1372 two hundred English vessels arrived together at Bordeaux, which came to load for vinous products.

The consumption of wine for the greater portion of the fourteenth century was, relatively speaking, enormous. French wine was then both sound and cheap, being "little more than four times the price of cider, and not much more than thrice the cost of beer," which, however, before the use of hops could not be made so as to keep. Wine in those days was procurable almost everywhere,—certainly in localities where the thirsty traveller might be puzzled to find it even now. Of this the intelligent labours of Professor Rogers furnish ample evidence. In his *History of early English Agriculture and Prices*, we find mention of the warden and fellows of Merton College, Oxford,

when on their northern journey to visit their lands in the year 1331, purchasing wine (specified in their accounts) at Alreton, Esyngwold, York, Durham, Cane, Ponteland, Grantham, and several other stages.

"It is most likely," he says, "that the travellers ordered not less than a quart, perhaps sometimes half a gallon; and that they found it readily at all their stages, either in the town inn, or at some wine-seller's shop. It was rough, and probably new; but it must have possessed body and spirit sufficient to bear the carriage. We are sorry to be compelled to add, that at New College all the wine entered in the annual rolls for some time is set down among the charges of the chapel. Now, however numerous were the masses said in New College chapel during the earlier days of its foundation, it could hardly have been the case that more than a gallon a-week was required for these offices."

But a still more curious instance of mediæval bibulous propensity which the Professor has put on record, appears in the account of the journey of Robert Oldman, bailiff of Cuxham under Merton College, to London, in 1331, to buy a pair of millstones. According to the college books he charged his employers with the cost of five gallons of Gascony, used in "discussing the terms of his bargain with the London merchant."

"Habit and prejudice," continues Mr. Rogers, "and a patient acquiescence in the enormous charges levied by the intermediaries of the wine-trade, have accustomed English people to look on that as a luxury which their forefathers five hundred years ago were enabled to use freely and cheaply, and procure at low rates at the common inns on the road at a time when communication and travel were certainly neither so easy nor so frequent as at present, and land and water carriage were far dearer. Hereafter, perhaps, we may recover the customs of our ancestors, and see the produce of foreign vineyards within the easy reach of the mass of the people."

For the purpose, be it remembered, of obtaining these and other foreign luxuries,—the silks of Italy, cloth and linen of the Low Countries, spices and jewelry from the East,—the people of England had then, with very slight exceptions, two commodities only to offer in exchange,—wool, and the produce of their mines.

Among our older statutes there are numerous ordinances affecting the importation of French wines, most of which, in

conformity with the mistaken notions of political economy in those days, fix a maximum price for their sale. Thus, in the first year of king John it was enacted that the wines of Anjou should not be sold for more than 24s. a tun,* and that the product of Poitu, sometimes called Rochelle wine from the port of shipment, should not be higher than 20s. ; while the other wines of France were restricted to 25s. a tun, "unless they were so good as to induce any one to give for them two marks or more." This would appear to be the earliest statute regulation on the subject of the foreign wine trade. Both Anjou and Poitu at that time belonged to England. For ordinary use, the wines of the latter province were directed to be sold at fourpence the gallon, of the former at sixpence ; but, according to Harrison, "this ordinance did not last long, for the merchants could not bear it ; so they fell to, and sold white wine for eightpence the gallon, and red and claret for sixpence." In the following reign the importations continued to increase ; and most of the contemporary chronicles attribute the neglect of the English vine-grounds to a growing fondness for French produce.

"In the early stages of growing refinement the English liked their Bordeaux wines to be rough and strong, caring little either for a fine *cru*, or its fragrant bouquet. In 1226 Henry III. gave orders to his cellarer at Bristol 'to sell off all the old wine, and buy new' with the proceeds,—quantity and not quality being the object in view. Among the wines of Gascony most acceptable in England were those of Gaillac. Another favourite vintage of old—Moissac, is hardly mentioned now."—*Histoire du Commerce à Bordeaux*, par Francisque-Michel. Both Evelyn and Swift preferred rough and vigorous wine, if the 'Pontac' they mention was what we now understand by that word, as being a dark-coloured spirituous wine, much in use at Bordeaux for blending with light and inferior growths.

In the fourteenth century, the English being mainly dependent upon Gascony for the supply of clarets and other lighter wines, various laws from time to time were enacted for the regulation of commerce with that province, which had already reached some

* A tun of wine is equal to two pipes.

magnitude, notwithstanding it was hampered by many arbitrary restrictions. By the 5th of Richard II. it is directed that the best wines of Gascony, Osey, Spain, and the Rhine shall be sold for 100 shillings, and the best Rochelle at six marks the tun ; and by retail, the former at sixpence, the latter at fourpence the gallon. In 1381 the price is stated to have risen considerably ; but in the year 1387, if we may credit Holinshed, there was such abundance of wine that " it was sold for 13s. 4d. the tun, and for 20 shillings the best and choicest." Edward III. issued several ordinances regarding wine, and curtailed English freedom by forbidding his subjects from any personal intercourse with Guienne,—a prohibition subsequently modified by the intervention of the Black Prince. Richard III., in whose reign came the 'wine of Tyre,' the Helbon of Scripture, decreed that wines should be only imported in butts of 126 gallons, with a view to prevent fraud in the customs duties, and covert enhancement of price by the varying size of the casks. The money-value of Claret north of the Tweed in 1493, is verified by entries in the trade-ledger of a Scotch merchant of that period named Andrew Haliburton, who resided at Middleburgh, and attended the fairs of Berri, Bruges, and Antwerp. Professor Innes, in his *Scotland in the Middle Ages*, describes it as by far the oldest merchant's book preserved in that part of the kingdom ; and, with other curious mercantile particulars, he quotes from it these items :—" A certain 'Andro Mowbray younger' exported cloth and large quantities of skins, and got in return awms of Rhine wine, and tuns of Gascon claret, (the latter cost 4*l.* the tun,) with 2 butts of Malwissy, bought from Jan Breganden for 12*l.* . . . The archdeacon of St. Andrew's sent occasionally wool and hides, with barrels of pickled salmon and trout, receiving in exchange, besides other foreign articles, puncheons of wine,—claret costing 16 shillings the puncheon." In the year 1499, 15 Henry VII., wheat sold at 4*s.* the quarter, or 6*d.* a bushel ; wine, at the same period, fetching 40*s.* the tun, which is about three farthings a quart. The wines of Guienne and Gascony continued to be largely consumed in England until the sixteenth century, when those of Spain first divided with them the public taste.

“ Until the year 1543 the vintners sold no other Sacks, Muscadels, Malmsies, Alicants, nor any other wines but White and Claret. Previously all those sweet wines were sold by apothecaries only, and for no other use but for medicines.”— (*Harl. Mis.*) In the time of the Tudors the current value of wine is well testified by the following excerpt from a curious book edited by a zealous archæologist, Samuel Pegge, A.M., entitled *The Forme of Cury: a Roll of ancient English Cookery, as compiled by the Master-Cooks of king Richard II.*, the pages of which present a singular appearance from the intermixture of Anglo-Saxon and English letters in the formulation of the numerous recipes:—

In the Rolls of Provisions, with their prices, dishes, etc., provided on the marriage of Roger, son of sir Thomas Rockley, with Elizabeth, daughter of sir John Nevile, of Chete, knt., in the 17th year of the reigne of our Soveraine Lord king Henry VIIIth, appear the following entries, the total cost being stated at £61 : 8 : 8, as taken from a MS. in the possession of the family of Nevil of Chevet, near Wakefield, Yorkshire.

<i>Imprimis</i> , eight quarters of barley wine at 10s.	. . .	£4 0 0
<i>Item</i> , 2 hogsheads of wine at 40s.	. . .	4 0 0
<i>Item</i> , 1 hogshead of red wine	. . .	40 0

Again, on the union of his daughter Mary Nevile with Gervas Clifton, in the twenty-first year of the same reign, entry is made of 3 hogsheads of wine, 1 white, 1 red, 1 claret, £5 5s. Also, when sheriff of Yorkshire, in the nineteenth year of the same monarch,—

At the Lent Assizes.

<i>Item</i> , 5 hogsheads of wine, 3 claret, 1 white, 1 red.	. . .	£10 16 4
--	-------	----------

At the Lammas Assizes.

<i>Item</i> , 3 hogsheads of wine	8 11 8
-----------------------------------	-----------	--------

At this period of England's progress wine was customarily served at breakfast with beer; and even the grave sir Thomas More drank frequent bumpers in the morning before proceeding to state business. A quart of wine and a quart of beer was the quantity usually served out for two persons. “Howbeit,” notes the sagacious Holinshed, “beere, cider, and perie are not their onely drinke at all times, but referred vnto the delicate sorts of drinke, as metheglin is in Wales; whereof the Welshmen make no less accompt than the Greekes did of their ambrosia and nectar,

which for the pleasantnesse thereof was supposed to be such as the gods themselves did delite in."

By an Act of Henry VIII. (anno 28, c. 14,) the wines of Gascony were forbidden to be sold at more than eightpence the gallon, or 1*d.* a pint; and a subsequent statute of 7 Edward VI., called an "Act to avoyde Excesse of Wines," besides other provisions for the regulation of prices, contains various enactments for controlling their sale in a manner that had never before been attempted, including also the following curious clauses:—

1. "None but such as can spend one hundred marks of yearly rent, or is worth one thousand marks, or else shall be the son of a duke, marquis, earl, viscount, or baron of the realm, shall have or keep in his house any vessel of foreign wine for his family's use exceeding ten gallons, under a penalty of ten pounds for every such offence."
2. "Merchants may use in their own houses, but not sell, such wines as they shall import: also high sheriffs, magistrates, and the inhabitants of fortified towns may keep vessels of wine for their own consumption only."

In addition to these sections no taverns were permitted to be set up for the retailing of wine, save in towns or cities; and then only two to be allowed, except in London and some other places, with a specified number for each. The English, however, were now too much accustomed to wine to be restrained by sumptuary laws from indulging their taste for that luxury, and considering the scanty population in that century, the quantity brought from various countries in olden time is truly astonishing. "Butts of the wine called Malvesey," says the preamble to an Act of that period, "were wont, in great plenty, to be brought into this realm to be sold before the 27th year of the reign of Henry IV., late indeed, but not of right, king of England; and then a man might buy of the merchant stranger, by mean of the said plenty, for 50*s.* or 53*s.* 4*d.* a-butt at the most; he taking for his payment thereof two parts in wollen cloth wrought in this realm, and the third part in ready money." In the records edited by Mr. Froude we read *anno* 1546, "And for wines we have continually from France and Spain, as also out of Almaine and out of Candia, great quantity of the best that grow in these parts. The

Flemings do buy much of our beer because it is better than theirs, and pay almost as much for it as we do the Frenchmen for their wine." Of the large consumption then existing some idea may be formed from the expenditure for wine at great entertainments, and the liberality exercised in the houses of the nobility. At the enthronization of the archbishop of York, in the sixth year of Edward IV., one hundred tuns of wine were drunk. His predecessor is said to have used eighty tuns of Claret yearly in his house ; and the consumption of wine in the establishment of the earl of Shrewsbury exceeded two tuns in the month. In the earl of Northumberland's household, however, which was regulated with the strictest economy, the yearly allowance of wine did not exceed forty-two hogsheads. In 1420, on the occasion of the jubilee that brought so many pilgrims to the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury, a great consumption of Bordeaux wine occurred ; and little wonder, since the red was sold at eight farthings a bottle, and the white at not more than six farthings. Malvasia, Romenay, Osey, Bastard, Muscadels, "and other sweet wines," came to England in the fourteenth century, and the historical accounts given of the mode of living in the time of queen Elizabeth testify to the great abundance and variety of foreign wines in use in her day. The growths then chiefly in demand were those of Gascony, Burgundy, and Guienne ; which, with Canary, Cyprus, Grecian Malmsey,* Italian Vernage, Rhenish Tent, Malaga, and others, as Holinshed quaintly expresses it, "well accompted of, because of their strength and valure. . . . But among all these viands," he further remarks, in reproof of the persistent and corruptive luxury rife in his time,—

"The kind of meat which is obtained with most difficultie and cost is commonlie taken for the most delicat, and therevpon each guest will soonest desire to feed. And as all estats doo exceed herein, I meane for strangenesse and number of costlie dishes, so these forget not to vse the like excesse in wine, insomuch as there is no kind to be had (neither anie where more store of all sorts than in England, although we have none growing with vs but yearelie to the proportion of 20,000 or 30,000

* Malmsey, a corruption of Malvasia, or Malmvesey, was a name applied generally to the rich wines of the Grecian Archipelago.

tun and vpwards, notwithstanding the dailie reffreinets of the same brought ouer vnto vs), wherof at great meetings there is not some store to be had. Neither doo I meane this of small wines onlie, as Claret, White, Red, French, &c., which amount to about fiftie-six sorts, according to the number of regions from whence they come ; but also to the thirtie kinds of Italian, Grecian, Spanish, Canarian, &c., wherof Vernage, Catepument, Raspis, Muscadell, Romnie, Bastard, Tire, Oseie, Caprike, Clareie, and Malmeseie are not least of all accompted of, because of their strength and valure. For as I have said in meat, so the stronger the wine is the more it is desired, by means whereof in old time the best was called *Theologicum*, bicause it was had from the cleargie and religious men, vnto whose houses manie of the laitie would often send for bottels filled with the same, being sure that they would neither drinke nor be serued of the worst, or such as was anie waies mingled or brued by the vintener: naie, the merchant would haue gone streightwaie to the diuill, if he should haue serued them with other than the best. Furthermore, when these haue had their course which nature yældeth, sundrie sorts of artificiall stuffe, as ypocras and wormewood wine must in like manner succeed in their turnes, beside stale ale and strong beere, which neuerthesse bear the greatest brunt in drinking, and are of so manie sorts and ages as it pleaseth the bruer to make them." . . .

"It is a world to see in these our daies, wherin gold and siluer most aboundeth, how that our gentilitie, as lothing those mettals (because of the plentie,) do now generallie choose rather the Venice glasses, both for our wine and beere, than anie of those mettals or stone wherin before time we haue beene accustomed to drinke ; but such is the nature of man generalliè, that it most coueteth things difficult to be attained, and such is the estimation of this stuffe, that manie become rich onelie with their new trade vnto Murana, (a towne neere to Venice, situat on the Adriatike sea,) from whence the verie best are dailie to be had, and such as for beautie doo well neere match the christall or the ancient *Murrhina vasa*, whereof now no man hath knowledge. And as this is seene in the gentilitie, so in the wealthie communaltie the like desire of glasse is not neglected, whereby the gaine gotten by their purchase is yet much more increased, to the benefit of the merchant. The poorest also will haue glasse if they may ; but sith the Venecian is somewhat too deere for them, they content themselues with such as are made at home of ferne and burned stone. But, in fine, all go on in one waie,—that is, to shards at the last, so that our great expenses in glasses (beside that they breed much strife toward such as haue the charge of them) are worst of all bestowed, in mine opinion, bicause their peeces doo turne vnto no

profit. If the philosopher's stone were once found, and one part hereof mixed with fortie of molten glasse, it would induce such a mettalllicall toughnesse therevnto, that a fall should nothing hurt it in such maner, yet it might, peradventure, bunch or batter it; neuerthelesse, that inconuenience were quickelie to be redressed by the hammer. But whither am I slipped?"

In the troublous times of Charles I. wine was called on to play its part in the coming conflict, and pamphlets printed in 1641, still extant, disclose some questionable transactions between the king and the London Vintners' Company, which subsequently became the subject of inquiry before a committee of the House of Commons. On the one hand the vintners are therein charged with three things,—

"1. That they were the projectors and contrivers of that imposition of 40s. per tun which the king set upon all wines in 1637. 2. That they were also actors and projectors of the same, to the grievance of the subject, by farming the revenue thereof at 30,000*l.* per annum, and taking 1*d.* and 2*d.* per quart upon the consumption of wines above the due price, and exacting oppressive licence fees from all retaylers, and obtaining other illegal privileges. 3. That in all these things they had a covetous desire of enriching themselves; and that by these means they have reaped great profit and advantage."

These charges the vintners on their part strenuously denied, and further asserted that—

"The project was first contrived at court, and often urged and refused by the Company. That in 1632, and again in 1633, an imposition of 4*l.* per tun was solicited by the king's ministers, but the vintners not submitting thereto, an extra-judiciall star-chamber decree interdicted the cooking of victuals and supplying tobacco for their customers, and many penal informations and petty persecutions were used as a lash to overawe them and abate their opposition; that these measures became so formidable in those injurious times, that the vintners in 1634 did furnish for the king's use 6,000*l.* on promise to be relieved from such vexatious proceedings and a confirmation of their former privileges. That the money so lent was detained, and the promise of relief denied; and that the farm of the imposition for 8 yeeres was obtruded upon the vintners, not for that it was likely to prove beneficiall to them, but for that they were the fittest men to bring in the king's rent, and could collect it with the least noyse and opposition. The men that first

assayed them to draw them into the project are now the greatest prosecutors for it; and there was not more deceit in representing the project legall then, than now in making it so odious; and it is hard to say whether greater ruine was contrived to them when they were brought to submit to it, or now when they are to be punisht for it. And further, that being compelled under the arrangement to take large quantities of wines in grosse from the merchants at a fixed and inordinate price, the vintners can make it visible to all that their Company is poor and necessitous, and that this project has greatly impoverished and impayred them, and been attended only with great and insupportable loss,—all which your petitioners pray may be duly weighed and considered.” In aggravation of the charges it was also alleged, that—

“Whereas the merchants’ price for malligo and sherry was then set (Dec. 1637) at 34*l.* a tun, the vintners retayle them at 14*d.* a quart, which amounts to 56*l.* the tun, and is 22*l.* profit; and then they buy these wines for the most part at 6*l.* and 8*l.* under the set price. Canary and sacke were set at 38*l.* a tun, which they sell generally at 14*d.* the quart, and is 18*l.* a tun cleare gaine; and some sell at 16*d.* a quart, which is 8*l.* a tun more.* French wines Gascoigne were set at 19*l.* a tun, and other smaller wines at 16*l.*, and the retayling price for all being 7*d.* a quart, is 28*l.* a tun, which is 9*l.* gained on the best, and 12*l.* on the smaller; and the two first yeeres (being 1638 and 1639) they bought most of their French wines at 8*l.* under the set price. So they gained by some of these wines 20*l.* a tun, and on all 17*l.* And, which is worst of all, they adulterate and falsifie their wines with unwholsome mixtures, as rotten figs, raisins, bilberries, blackberries, sloes, allome, izinglasse, deale, sawdust, cyprus wood, lyme-water, and sugar, sider, milke, stoome, and other unwholsome ingredients: by which it is manifest that the nobility and gentry are greatly deceived and abused both in the price and condition of their wines, oftentimes to indangering their lives.

“As for the gaine the vintners have made by this corrupt project, it hath been shewne and proved before the committee to amount to above 200,000*l.*; and the vintners, being a considerable body, are well able to make great restitution or satisfaction to the Commonwealth.”

On discussion of the question in the House of Commons, the following resolutions were recorded in the Vote-paper:—

* The above statement determines the value and price of the wines then in current use; but as the pamphlets above referred to were printed in anticipation of discussion, what ultimately became of this notable impeachment is not revealed to us.

"Concerning the Prices of Wine, &c.

DIE MERCURII, MAII 26, 1641.

"Upon the whole matter of the Report,

"It was resolved upon the question,—

"1. That the Patent for the payment of 40 shill. per tun on wines by the merchants is illegall in the creation, and a grievance.

"2. That the imposition of a penny on a quart on French wines, and twopence on a quart on Spanish wines, is a grievance.*

"3. That the Patent of the imposition of 40 shillings per tun is a grievance in the execution

"4. That Alderman Abel and Master Richard Kelvert are the principal projectors, both in the creation and execution of this illegall imposition of 40 shill. per tun.

"Resolved upon the Question,

"That there shall be a Bill prepared, declaring the offences of Alderman Abel and Richard Kelvert, to the end they may be made exemplary.

"Resolved, &c.,

"That a select Committee be named to examine who were the Referees, Advisers, Sharers, Complotters, and Contractors, and those that have received any bribe or benefit by this Patent, and who drew the Patent.

"Resolved, &c.,

"That the Proclamation, dated the 15th of July, in the 14th year of the King, prohibiting the Wine-Coopers to buy and sell Wine is illegall, and against the liberty of the subject.

"Resolved, &c.,

"That the Decree made in the Starre Chamber in December 1633, prohibiting retailing Vintners to dresse meat in their own houses to sell againe to guests, is illegall, and against the liberty of the subject."

In the same year, (1641), the king ordered that the price of the best red wines of Guienne should not exceed 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ the tun, and be retailed at sixpence a quart. Inferior qualities were restricted to 15 $\frac{1}{2}$.

After the Restoration the tavern charge for the wines of

* It appears by the entries at the Custom-house, that in two years, from Michaelmas 1639 to Michaelmas 1641, there were imported into London alone 19,901 tuns of Spanish wines.

Aquitaine was fixed by Charles II., in 1672, at 16*d.* the gallon; and eighteen years afterwards it was raised to 2*s.*, which was the sale price fixed by royal authority. From 1679 to 1685 the wines of France were altogether prohibited; this was followed soon after by the celebrated Methuen treaty with Portugal, and since that period the wines in use in this country have been chiefly Port and Sherry. Yet much as the English now like Port, or the compound that goes under that name, it is scarcely more than a century ago that England took heartily to a preferential use of either Portuguese or Spanish wines. Claret returned with Charles II., and superseded the "White wine and Sherry" of the Cromwellian era, when the former was not easily attainable. But if Claret came back in the train of the second Charles, it undoubtedly went out with his unfortunate brother James; or, at all events, was driven out by the statesmen of William III. and queen Anne, who imposed a differential duty of 8*l.* per tun on all French wines imported, which four years afterwards was further augmented to 33*l.* per tun. The natural consequences, however, were not slow in overtaking such impolitic tamperings with the primal laws of foreign exchange. Commerce is a power with laws of its own, and cannot be slighted or coerced with impunity. Infractions of her natural course are apt to beget artificial scarcity and high prices, often aggravated by gross adulteration or mean substitution. Thus French wines soon lost in credit what they gained in price, and public resentment found vent in pungent lampoons, noisy clamour, and ribald song.

"One glasse of drinke I got by chance,
 'Twas Claret when it was in France,
 But now from it moche wider;
 I think a man might make as good
 With greene crabbes boyl'd in Brazil wood,
 And half a pint of cyder."—*Old Song.*

The following excerpt is derived from *A Search after Claret*, a rhyming Satire in two cantos, *temp.* 1661, which forcibly depicts the privation and perplexity then so deeply felt:—

EPISTLE DEDICATORY.

“To all lovers, admirers, and doters on Claret,
 (Who though at death’s door yet can hardly forbear it,)
 Who can miracles credit, and fancy Red-Port
 To be sprightly Puntack,—and the best of the sort ;
 To all sober half-pint men, and serious sippers,
 To all old maudlin drinkers, and twelve o’clock bibbers ;

To all lovers of red and white Port, Syracuse,
 Barcelona, Navarr, or Canary’s sweet juice;
 To all drinkers of Sherry, old Hock, or Moselle,
 Or of Tent, which soon teaches the flesh to rebel ;
 To all Alicant-tasters and Malaga sots,
 To all friends to straw-bottles and nicking quart pots ;
 To all Bacchus his friends who have taverns frequented,
 The following Poem

IS HUMBLY PRESENTED.”

“My friend and myself then resolv’d for the town,
 To drink, since our stomachs both crav’d and could bear it,
 A bottle of good old dry orthodox Claret.
 We call’d not at Bow, lest things should not hap-well,
 And stopt not to drink till we came to White Chappel.

“Then, crossing the way, we stepped to Tom Allon’s,
 But he swore by Staines-bridge that he had but six gallons
 Of Claret ; yet they of his trade were very great blockheads
 If, of that, Red-Port they made not six hogsheads.

“At the Griffin and Hoop we had further to seek,
 For Claret to them was as barb’rous as Greek ;
 Of red and white Port in their vaults there was no lack,
 But, by Bacchus ! they had not a drop of Puntack.

“Sure Popery will now be the *à-la-mode* fashion,
 Since vintners can swallow Transubstantiation ;
 For the wine that was French about six months ago,
 Has quite chang’d its nature, and ’s no longer so.

“At his door with a rummer we found Neddy Drayner,
 And perceiv’d by his looks that he was a complainer.
 We whisper’d in ’s ear, and desir’d (could he spare it)
 To let’s have a bottle or two of old Claret.

“He started, as frighted to hear our demands,
 And answer’d, ‘ Why, gentlemen,’ (and he held up ’s hands,)
 ‘ D’ye know what you mean ? Let me dye like an ass,
 If this twelvemonth I’ve seen, smelt, or tasted a glass ! ’

“He told of good Port we were sure not to fail,
 But we, fearing the sting it might have in the tail,
 Declin’d it.”——

In another rare 4to publication, dated 1693, entitled *The Bacchanalian Sessions; or, the Contention of the Liquors*, Bacchus is described as sitting in solemn conclave astride a wine-cask, to hear and determine on the claims for superiority between the several contentious vintages, who thus proclaims his award :—

“Now the gods all above, well as mortals below,
Th’ effects of good Claret too sensibly know ;
For there once was a time,—but alas ! the time’s fled,
When a Punch-bowl gave place to the bottle of Red.
When no other name ran through Jove’s Olympic great hall,
Still for Claret did the gods and their goddesses call ;
But since foul civil wars have in Europe arose,
What’s become of the fine Bordeaux Claret,—who knows ?
To our hands came a letter from mortals judicious,
Humbly showing that Claret was now grown so vicious,—
So counterfeit, poor, dull, flat, and insipid,
That scarcely ’tis fitting for man to lay lip at,—
Unless by strong faith, between sleeping and waking,
They would drink a damn’d wine of the vintner’s own making.
So I’ll hear you no more, till it happen that one day
This hogshead I stride on is filled with Burgundy.
If such a kind present your Master can raise,
’Tis forty to one I award you the bays.”

Under the arbitrary rule of the middle ages, a notable expedient was enforced for controlling the tastes and habits of the people by means of stringent sumptuary laws occasionally issued for that purpose. Hence it may be more a matter of interest and curiosity than surprise to observe, on consulting the municipal archives of London,—that London which can boast full eighteen centuries as her own,—the paternal and watchful solicitude manifested by the vigilant corporation of those days for the peace and welfare of their constituents. The city records extend over the lengthened period of nine hundred years, and are unrivalled by any corporate muniments extant. “There is no city in the world,” says one eminently qualified to speak authoritatively,* “that possesses a collection of archives so ancient and so complete as the collection at Guildhall.” The talented labour

* M. Delpit, the accomplished mediævalist, in his *Collection des Documents Français en Angleterre*.

bestowed by Mr. H. T. Riley on the translation of many of these documents, has given to the public in their printed form a knowledge of numerous curious customs and obsolete social habits. From this source we learn how unremittingly the care and authority of the civic powers were directed, not only to the formalities of local government, the preservation of order, and the prevention and prompt removal of obstructions and nuisances of every kind, but extended to a vigorous supervision of the purveyors and dealers in food and drink. Butchers and bakers, poulterers and fishmongers, brewers and tapsters were alike subject to stringent control, and the regulations concerning them were numerous and precise. In the middle ages "forestalling and regrating" were regarded and denounced as the worst of civic crimes, nor was the pillory an infrequent elevation for fraudulent bakers. By public enactment, *temp.* Edward I., loaves were ordered (probably circular in form) to be made at two and four to the penny; and none were to be sold at a higher price than this,—such as three or five farthings a-piece. These forbidden loaves, notwithstanding, appear to have been sometimes smuggled into the markets, "under the arms,"—under the folds of the garments, probably,—or else "beneath a towel." Every baker residing within the walls was bound under penalties to keep a seal, and to impress all his loaves therewith. And further, the sale of bread was not permitted to take place in the baker's house "before his oven," or in any secret place; in none other, in fact, than in the king's markets. A strict superintendence was also exercised over 'hostelers and brewsters,' and the latter were commanded to vend their ale at one penny the gallon, and the best at three-halfpence. Selling at a higher price, or short measure, was punished with graduated penalties up to a fourth conviction, when the petty delinquent was pronounced incorrigible, and sentenced to be deprived of the city franchise for ever.

The taverners, who sold wines, were under yet sterner rule; for "persons going about by night do commonly resort to taverns more than elsewhere, and do there seek shelter, and watch their time to do ill." So no one shall keep his tavern open

after curfew has been rung, nor shall he allow any person in his house, "sleeping or sitting up." Keepers of wine-taverns and victuallers, (who merely sold provisions,) do not appear to have lodged their guests any more than the cooks, who supplied the public with cooked meals at their own houses, and to whose tables strangers and wayfarers habitually resorted. No wine-taverner was to mix unsound with good wine, or old with new, under certain penalties; and, *tempora mutantur*, new wine in those days appears to have been much preferred to old, it being enacted that after the arrival of new wine at a tavern, none of it should be sold before the old was disposed of. Neither were the new wines to be put in the same cellar as the old, nor French and Spanish with the Rhenish. They were ordered also to sell by sealed measure, and not by the cruse; and it was the right of every customer to see from what vessel his wine was drawn, that the vessel was clean, and that it contained no other liquid. Taverners who sold "sweet" wines were not only forbidden to deal in the other kinds, but their number was restricted; for by royal writ of 39 Edward III. only three taverns for the sale of sweet wines were in future to be permitted within the city; whilst the sale of mixed wine, or of "wine made by himself," was punished with the pillory. The wine taverns of that period were furnished with a pole projecting from the gable of the house, and supporting a sign, or a bunch of leaves* at the end, and sometimes decorated so gaily as to become famous in their day, as we gather from the words of the satirist Tom Nashe, in his *Lenten Stuffe; or, Praise of the Red Herring*, (1599,) who made his fish "to glowe and glare like a Turkie brooch, or a London vintner's signe." In one ordinance it is stated that the poles of the taverns in Cheap and elsewhere were of such a length as to be in the way of persons on horseback, and so heavy as to cause risk of greatly damaging the houses; it was therefore enacted, that from thence no sign-pole should be more than seven feet in length, which may have been the width of the foot-path reserved for passengers, in Cheap and the wider streets at least. In the 'good old times' of the thirteenth and fourteenth

* Hence the proverb, "Good wine needs no bush."

centuries genuine rational liberty was a thing apparently comprehended but by few, appreciated perhaps by fewer, really enjoyed by none. The first Mayor of London, FitzAlwyne, was appointed in 1189, *temp.* Richard I.

The civic muniments do not show what vintages were in greatest favour with our forefathers, but the consumption of wine, which at one period fetched little more than the cost of ale, was extensive. In the *Liber Albus* of 1419, in the corporation archives, the few sweet wines named are—Malvesie (the modern Malmsey), a Greek wine, sold in the reign of Richard II. at 16*d.* per gallon; Vernage (Vernaccia), a red Tuscan wine, sold at 2*s.*; Crete, sold at 1*s.*, and wine of Provence, sold at the same price, under which last name probably Roussillon or a kindred wine is meant. A kind called Romaney is mentioned as often fraudulently imitated in the time of Henry V., which was a name given to a choice variety of Malvesie. In addition to Crete and the others above mentioned, the following appear in a sister muniment of the same date:—Candie, (a variety, perhaps, of Crete,) Trubidiane, (probably wine of Trebbiano, an Italian product of exquisite sweetness,) Mountross, (perhaps Rosas, a Catalonian wine,) Greeke, and Claire, (most likely a French vintage, sweetened and boiled.) By writ of 47 Edward III. all these were sold at 12*d.* a gallon. Another wine, called Ryvere, fetched 16*d.*, the price obtained for Romaney also in this reign; but whilst ordinary qualities in the thirteenth century were comparatively low in price, (about one penny a bottle,) occasional municipal memoranda refer to the purchase of more costly wines, apparently drunk at the taverns. "Wine in Bread Street, one penny," is a frequent entry; and we also find mention of a "Greek wine, fourpence," and "Vernage, sixpence." Confectionery of the richest kinds were the lighter complements of meals then ordinarily in use; and these were abundantly sustained by the introduction of hippocras, piments, or claret,—or better still, by the simpler and purer wines of France, Syria, and Greece, and freely dispensed under the genial influence of unstinted hospitality, as thus proudly chronicled by contemporary genius:—

“Ye shall have Rumney and Malespine,
 Both Ypocrasse and Vernage wine;
 Mountrassè and wyne of Greke,
 Both algrade and despice eke;
 Pyment also, and Garnardè,
 Antioche and Bastardè;
 Wyne of Greke and Muscadell,
 With Clary, Pyment, and Rochelle.”

At the time of the Crusades the vintages of Greece were held in high esteem, although they appear in succeeding reigns to have dropped much out of use.

“Formerly,” observes Dr. D. M'Bride, in his *General Instructions for the Choice of Wines*, “Greece and Italy were famous for their wines, but more particularly the Greek islands. There is no doubt but the same species of vines still exist there, and that by proper exertions wines of equal virtue and quality could now be procured; and, indeed, there seems to be great need of something of this kind from the general depravity in the management of this most valuable article, upon which in a great measure depend the health and lives of thousands.”

It is related of Erasmus, when resident at Cambridge, that he betrayed no small impatience at the beverages there procurable. He tells his friend Ammonius that “he does not intend to stay long at Queen's College, for the wine and beer are both bad; and will he serve him by sending a cask of the best Greek wine?” Ammonius appears to have forwarded an occasional supply for his use; but relaxing somewhat in his usual regularity, Erasmus writes—“I retain your cask, which I have kept by me empty rather a long time, in order that I might at least refresh myself by the smell of Greek wine.”

The national use and taste of a people for wines may be said to be progressive with its civilization; and such has been the influence of custom in reconciling the palate to certain tastes, however incongruous, that they were sometimes rendered more vendible by having qualities imparted to them which in themselves are repulsive. We are apt to question the refinement of the antients who could relish the factitious bitterness given to the produce of their vines by means of pitch, rosin, and salt-water, and yet are pleased with the acerbity and astringency which modern wines occasionally receive from the infusion of various

harsh ingredients, ignoring and disdaining the combination of sweet and odoriferous herbs with which they scented and improved such as were of an inferior description. In this country it was not unusual, at the above period, to mix honey and spices with the wines, in order to cover the harshness and acidity common to most of them. Thus compounded, they passed under the generic name of *piments*, probably because they were originally prepared by the *pigmentarii*, or apothecaries, and they were used much in the same manner as the liqueurs of modern times. The bards of the thirteenth century never speak of them but with rapture, and as an exquisite luxury. They esteemed it as the masterpiece of art to be able to combine in one liquor the strength and flavour of wine with the sweetness of honey and the perfume of the most costly aromatics. The archives of the cathedral of Paris show that, both in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the deans of Châteaufort were obliged to provide a regular supply of this delicious beverage for the canons at the feast of the Assumption. It was even, on particular days of the year, allowed to the monks in the monasteries; and any banquet at which no piment was served would have been thought paltry, and deficient in the most approved essential. The varieties of piment most frequently mentioned are the *hippocras* and *clarry*. The former was made with either white or red wine, in which different aromatic ingredients were infused, and took its name from the particular bag called 'Hippocrates' sleeve,' through which it was strained. It was taken, at all great entertainments, between the courses, or at the conclusion of the repast, and wafers and manchets are directed to be served with it. *Clarry*, on the other hand, was a claret or mixed wine, sweetened with honey, and seasoned much in the same way. It is repeatedly named by our early poets, and appears to have been drunk by many fasting, or as a composing-draught before retiring to rest.

Of such medicated liqueurs two kinds only continue still in use; one being *Vermuth*, or wormwood wine, which is prepared in Hungary and some parts of Italy, and much valued as a gentle and agreeable tonic; and the other a compound made by

infusing one or more toasted Seville oranges in some light wine, and then sweetening to the taste with sugar. This preparation, when made with Burgundy or Bordeaux wine, is called *bishop*; when old Rhine wine is used, it receives the name of *cardinal*; and when Tokay is employed, the prouder appellation of *pope* is accorded. In Pegge's unique volume, *The Forme of Cury*, already referred to, there is preserved "The process at large for making Ypocrasse," in a MS. belonging to Thomas Astle, esq., thus:—

"To make Ypocrasse for lords with gynger, synamon, and graynes, sugour and turesoll; and for comyn pepull, gynger, canell, longe peper, and claryffied hony. Loke ye have feyre pewter basens to kepe in your pouders and your ypocrasse to ren yune; and to vi. basens ye muste have vi. renners on a perche, as ye may here see; and loke your poudurs and your gynger be redy and well paryd, or hit be beton in to poud^r. Gynger colombyne is the best gynger mayken, and balandyne be not so good nor holsom . . . now thou knowist the propertees of Ypocrase. Your poudurs must be made everyche by themselfe, and laid in a bledder in store; hange sure your perche with baggs, and that no bagge twoyche other, but basen twoyche basen. The first bagge of a galon; every on of the other a potell. Fyrst do in to a basen a galon or ij of redwyne, then put in your pouders, and do it in to the renners, and so to the second bagge; then take a pece an assay it. And yef hit be eny thyng to stronge of gynger, alay it with synamon; and yef it be stronge of synamon, alay it with sugour cute. And thus schall ye make perfyte Ypocras. And loke your bagges be of boltell clothe, and the mouthes opyn, and let it ren in v. or vi. bagges on a perche, and under every bagge a clene basen. The chaftes of the spices is good for sewies. Put your Ypocrase in to a stanche wessell, and bynde upon the mouthe a bleddur strongly: then serve for the waffers and the Ypocrasse."

Wine, both red and white, was then common, partly of native growth, and partly by importation from France and Greece. They had also Rhenish, and probably several other sorts. The *vynegreke* is classed among the sweet wines in a MS. of Mr. Astle; and as an essential ingredient Greek wine is prescribed in many of the Master-Cooks' recipes.

In another black-letter relic of 20 leaves 18mo., called *The Booke of CARUING and SERUING, and all the Feastes of the Yeere, for the seruice of a Prince or any other Estate*: London, 1613,

other forms of recipe occur, of which the subjoined also gives full directions how

To make Ipocras.

“Take ginger, pepper, graines, canel, sinamon, suger, and turnsols ; then looke ye have fieve or sixe bags for your ipocras to run in, and a pearch that your renners may ren on ; then must ye haue sixe pewter basins to stand vnder your bags ; then looke your spice be ready, and your ginger well pared ere it be beaten to poudre ; then looke your stalkes of sinamon be well coloured, and sweete canel is not so gentle in operation ; cinamon is hot and dry, graines of Paradise be but hot and moist ; ginger, graines, long pepper, and sugar be hot and moist ; sinamon, canell, and wine colouring.

“Now know yee the proportions of your Ipocras, then beat your powders each by themselves, and put them in bladders, and hang your bags sure, that no bagge touch other, but let each basin touch other. Let the first basin bee of a gallon, and each of the other a pottle ; then put in your basin a gallon of redde wine, put thereto your pouders, and stirre them well ; then put them into the second bagge ; then take a piece in your hand, and assay if it be strong of the ginger, and alay it with sinamon, and if it be strong of sinamon alay it with suger ; and look ye let it ren through sixe renners, and your Ipocras shall bee the finer. Than put your Ipocras into a close vessell, and keep the receite, for it will serue again ; then serue your soueraigne with wafers and ipocras.”

The butler is also enjoined “to beware of cow-cream, and of strawberries, huttleberries, juncat ; for creame cheese will make your soueraigne sick, but let him eat hard cheese, which hath these operations, it will keepe the stomack open. Butter is wholesome first and last, for it will doe away all poysons. Milke, creame, and juncate, they will close the maw, and so doth a posset ; therefore eat hard cheese, and drinke Rumney modom. Beware of green sallads and raw fruites, for they will make your soueraigne sicke, therefore set not much by such meates as will set your teeth on edge ; therefore eate an almond and hard cheese, but eat not much cheese without Romney moden. Also of diuers drinckes, if their fumositives haue displeased your soueraigne, let him eat a raw apple, and the fumositives will cease. Measure is a mery meane, and if it be well vsed, abstinence is to be praised when God therewith is pleased.

“Also take good heede of your wines euery night with a candle, both red wine and sweet wine, and looke they reboyle nor leake not,

and wash the pipe heads euery night with cold water : and look yee haue a clenching iron, ads, and linnen clothes if neede be ; and if they reboyle, ye shall know by the hissing ; therefore keepe an emptie pipe with the lies of coloured Rose, and draw the reboiled wine to the lies, and it shall helpe it ; and if the sweete wine pale, draw it into a Romney vessell for leeing.

“ Heere followeth the names of Wines.

“ Red wine, White wine, Claret wine, Osey, Caprick, Campolet, Renish wine, Malmesey, Bastard, Tyre, Rumney, Muscadell, Clary, Raspis, Vernage, Cuts, Piment, and Ipocras.”

The taste for sweet wines that now prevailed soon led to the importation of all the choicest kinds ; they seem to have been used in considerable quantities, attended in the sixteenth century by a progressive augmentation of price. Malmsey, which in 1492 fetched only twopence a quart, sold for twice that sum in 1550 ; and three years afterwards it rose to fivepence, notwithstanding a law of Edward VI. had once more fixed it at threepence. It long continued the favourite wine, and is the only one of the sweet class specified in the ordinances of the household of Henry VIII., in whose reign, however, the much-lauded sack was first imported into this country. Its precise character and properties have long been the subject of diligent inquiry and much controversy ; and considering how familiar our ancestors were with wines of this description, and what a large space they occupy in the writings of our best authors, it is not a little singular that its history and identity should have so long remained in obscurity, and that the question should continue still undecided.

“ Wine, boy !

Wine o’ my worship ! Sack ! Canary sack !”—*Old Play.*

Sack, probably, was first used as a generic name for white wines : occasionally the particular growth was specified, but for a long time the words sack and sherry appear to have been used indiscriminately for each other. Skinner, indeed, and some others, assert that it obtained its name from *Xique*, a town in Morocco ; but a more general acceptation is that sack is derived from the French word *sec*, dry ; this supposition is plausible, but not very convincing. Not even the toppers of Elizabeth and

James's days would have quaffed "fine old dry Amontillado" by the gallon, as they did their "sack;" nor can we imagine them drinking dry sherry "mulled," or serving it up in such large "sack-pots" as were then in use. A few words from Withers' *Canterbury Tale*, (1613,) will serve to illustrate in what measures it was ordinarily taken:—

"The hostess says, 'I use to drink no wine;
Yet your best morning's draught is Muscadine'
With that the drawer's call'd to fill a quart:
(Oh! 'tis a wholesome liquor next the heart.)
The drawer, call'd again, cries 'What d'ye lacke?'
'Rogue! bring us up a gallon more of sacke!'"

Was not the word sack, suggest others, rather derived from the saccharine wine or mixture so grateful to the English of that day, whose love of sweets was notorious? Some, indeed, were so fond of luscious drinks, that they not only took sack (already sweet), but sack *and* sugar, as remarked by Moryson, in his *Itinerary*, 1617:—"And because the taste of the English is thus delighted with sweetnesse, the wines in taverns (for I speake not of merchants' or gentlemen's cellars) are commonly mixed at the filling thereof, to make them pleasant." Other ingenious writers trace the origin of the term sack to *saco*, the *ódre* or *borracho*, in which wine is transported;* but the Spaniards do not apply *saco* to wine-skins. In Spanish Dictionaries of a century and a half old, sack is given as *vino de Canarias*; yet there is much reason to believe that sack was made of various vintages, a supposition sustained by frequent references thereto in old plays, and more especially by the express statement of Gervase Markham, who writes, 1634:—"Your best sakes are of Seres, in Spaine; your smaller of Gallicia and Portugal; your strong sakes are of the islands of the Canaries, and of Malligo; and your Muscadines and Malmseys are of many parts of Greece, Italy, and some special islands." In another publication of 62 pp. 4to., called *The Trade's Increase*, temp. 1615, we further read: "For Andalusia, Lisborn, and Portugal,

* A wine-skin made of hog or goat's hide, dressed with the hair inwards, and pitched or rosined, is called *ódre*, being in this form more convenient for carrying on the back of a mule, and cheaper than a cask. *Borracho*, as also *bota*, means a leathern bottle.

it is easily known what shipping we have there by our trade, which is but mean, consisting of sacke, sugar, fruit, and drugs, which may employ some twenty ships. Among these Cherries sacks are likewise brought into England, especially in Flemish bottoms. . . . And as for Malaga, the inhabitants there have, through our plentiful resort thither, planted more store of vines; so that on our recourse thither, our merchants have withdrawn themselves much from Cherries." The Malaga sacks must have been not only stronger, but much sweeter than the other kinds, as by mixing them with Sherry a liquor resembling Canary wine was produced. It would thus seem probable that the term sack was applied equally to the sweet and dry wines of Canary, Xeres, and Malaga, which may serve to explain much of the confusion and diversity of opinion prevalent as to the true character of the wines so much extolled by our earlier playwrights and poets. The practice that existed of mixing sugar with sack has been thought by many persons to indicate a dry wine, such as Rhenish or Sherry; but there would be little humour in Falstaff's well-known jest on sack and sugar, if the liquor had not been of the sweet kind. Many authorities can be quoted that appear to warrant the inference that sack was a dry Spanish wine; yet, on the other hand, numerous instances occur in which it is mentioned in conjunction with others of the richer class. The Act of Henry VIII. speaks of "sakkes or other sweete wines;" a later enactment, 12 Charles II., also classes sack with "Malmseys, Tents, Canaries, Malligoes, and other sweet wines;" and we read in *Rule a Wife and have a Wife*, "Give me a cup of sack,—an ocean of sweet sack." We also find mention of Canary sack, which differed materially from Sherry in character, and could not come within the description of a dry wine. In the early voyages to the Canaries, quoted by Hakluyt in 1598, there occurs this passage:—"Nicols lived eight years in the islands. The isle of Teneriffe produces three sorts of wine,—Canary, Malvasia, and Verdone, which may all go under the denomination of *sack*;" and a casual remark by Mr. Harcourt, in his *Relation of a Voyage to Guiana* in 1608, seems also to imply that sack must have been a rich liquor when

he says, "There are no vines in that country ; but the soil being fertile and the climate hot, if they were planted there they would prosper, and yield good sacks and Canary wines ; which we find to be very wholesome."

Sack is similarly classed in a curious little volume, printed in 1638, entitled *THE TREE OF HUMANE LIFE, or THE BLOVD OF THE GRAPE: proving the possibility of maintaining humane Life from Infancy to extreeme Old Age without any Sicknesse by the Use of Wine*: by Tobias Whitaker, Doctor in Physick of London, who further informs us, that "amonge the French wines there are many others, those commonly used and knowne to us being White, Claret, and Sack, and these also admit of their differences : for as there are severall sorts of Sack and Claret, so also are there of White wines, some sweet, some austere, some thick, others lympid and cleere,—and all these nourish much, but especially the sweet wines." This worthy son of Galen appears to have entertained very exalted notions respecting the nature and curative properties of wine. He describes it as "so transcending all other nutriment, as that just Noah makes it the first act of his husbandry, and planted a vineyard before either corne or any other grayne, as is affirmed by sacred testimony. The qualities of wine generally received among physitians are to nourish, and that above all aliments, sayeth Galen. It doth also corroborate, evacuate, correct putrefaction, open obstructions, and exhilarate the jaded spirits. And there is a great deale of reason why it should be so practised, for there is no other vegetal or minerall so safe, harmlesse, and familiar in itselfe to humane constitutions, as being naturally more pure and better concocted than any other juyce, either of milke, egges, corne, fruits, or the like ; the most of them, by reason of their crudity, breeding little bloud, or vitious bloud, or no bloud at all. . . . Thus man's life may be preserved free from any disease arising out of the mixture of naturall principles, from the infant age to the decrepid old age, except the principles be cast impure, from whence proceedeth weaker tempers, and many distempers which wee call hereditary diseases. And these also by art, and the artificial use and application of wine, may be much altered, and life

beyond all expectation prolonged : and that which is counted the shame of physitians, and puts them so often to their wit's end,—viz. a consumption, hereditary or accidentall, and universall of the whole body, is no way to be cured better than by the right use of the plant. All physitians in this case have hitherto flone to milke of asses, and the like ; but what is milke comparatively with this juyce, which indeed is fit for princes to receive, and physitians duly to study upon, that they may learnedly and rightly apply it ; for great care and judgement ought to be urged for the safety and extension of life to extreame old age, which in many hath beene shortened by outlandish devices and kickchawes. As for my own experience, though I have not yet lived so long as to love excesse, yet I have seene such powerfull effects, both on myselfe and others, as, if I could render no other reason, they were enough to perswade me of its excellence, seeing extenuate withered bodies by it caused to be faire, fresh, plumpe, and fat ; old and infirme to be young and sound, when, as water or small-beere drinkers, they look like apes rather than men." And what says the man of grand ideas and capacious gullet, Ned Ward, author of *The London Spy* :—

" Oh ! give me, kind Bacchus, thou god of the vine !
Not a pipe, nor a tun, but an ocean of wine ;
And a ship that is manned by those jolly good fellows,
Who ne'er forsook tavern for porterly alehouse."

The sack drunk at gentlemen's tables is described in passages of the older drama as a mixture of sherry, cider, and sugar ; those adding more who did not think theirs sweet enough. And we learn from a treatise by Venner, *temp.* 1620, that "sacke, taken by itself, is very hot and penetrative : being taken with sugar, the heat is somewhat allayed, and the penetrative quality thereof also retarded." Whatever may have been its exact nature, sack proved highly attractive and seductive to the gallants of those days. In a small 4to. tract in the British Museum, called *Aristippus, the Foviall Philosopher*, 1630, we are told that—

"Sacke is the life, soul, and spirits of a man, the fire which Prometheus stole, not from Jove's kitchen, but his wine-celler, to encrease

the native heat and radicall moisture, without which we are but drousie dust, or dead clay. This is Nectar, the very Nepenthe the gods were drunke with : 'tis this that gave Ganymede beauty, Hebe youth, to Jove his heaven and eternity. Doe you thinke Aristotle dranke Perry? or Plato Cyder? Doe you thinke Alexander had ever conquer'd the world if he had bin sober? He knew the force and valour of Sacke ; that it was the best armour, the best encouragement, and that none could be a commander that was not double drunke with wine and ambition :—

“ Slaues are they that heape up mountaines,
 Still desiring more and more ;
 Still let's carouse in Bacchus' fountaines,
 Never dreaming to be poore.
 Give vs, then, a cup of liquor,
 Fill it vp vnto the brim ;
 For then, methinkes, my wits grow quicker,
 When my braines in liquor swim,—
 So, Hey ! for the brave Aristippus ! ”

Herrick, under its inspiring influence, describes sack as a “frantic liquor,” and revels with delight on its “witching beauties,” “generous blood,” &c. ; and most of the dramatic writings of the age contain frequent allusions to its enlivening and other fascinating properties. Falstaff, too, while descanting on its excellent effects on the body and mind, says that “a good sherris-sack hath a twofold operation in it : it ascends me into the brain ; dries me there all the foolish, and dull, and crudy vapours which environ it ; makes it apprehensive, quick, inventive, full of nimble, fiery, and delectable shape, which delivered o'er to the voice (the tongue), which is the birth, becomes excellent wit. The second property of your excellent sherris is,—the warming of the blood ; which, before cold and settled, left the liver white and pale, which is the badge of pusillanimity and cowardice ; but the sherris warms it, and makes it course from the inwards to the parts extreme. It illumineth the face, which, as a beacon, gives warning to all the rest of this little kingdom (man) to arm. and then the vital commoners and inland petty spirits muster me all to their captain,—the heart ; who, great and puffed up with this retinue, doth any deed of courage,—and this valour comes of sherris : So that skill in the weapon is nothing without sack, for that sets it a-work ; and learning a mere hoard

of gold kept by a devil till sack commences it, and sets it in act and use. . . . If I had a thousand sons, the first human principle I would teach them should be,—to forswear thin potations, and addict themselves to sack.”

“Give me sacke,—old sacke, boys,
To make the Muses merry ;
The life of mirth, and the joy of the earth,
Is a cup of good old Sherry.”—PASQUIL, apud *Roxburghe Garland*.

In the *Mystery of Vintners*, published in 1692, is given a recipe “to correct the ranknesse, eagernesse, and pricking of wines, as Sack and Malago, or any other sweete wine.” Whether the Canary islands furnished any dry as well as sweet wines perhaps may be questioned ; but it is clear that Canary sack resembled the liquor which still passes under that name. Sugar, it is known, was customarily taken with Rhenish, and various other white wines ; and judging, then, from what is observable of the wines of Spain, it is probable that many of them in those days were both dry and sweet, acquiring from age alone the dryness for which they were distinguished ; and it may be fairly inferred, that the sack our merry Falstaff loved was rich, luscious, and “penetrative ;” for both sir John and prince Hal were too fond of sugar and sweets to relish a *dry* sack.

The retail price of wine in 1618 was thirteen pence the full quart. The charge for a pint of Muscatel was sixpence : for a magnum of Canary of nine pints two shillings and sixpence. Two eight-gallon rundlets of Claret sixteen shillings. Three quarts of Sherry were to be had for two shillings, the vintner's charge for the same being three shillings. In 1667 the price, as fixed at Oxford, was “Sack and Malagaes one shilling and sixpence the quart, and no more.” In 1673, however, it was advanced by the same authority to one shilling and tenpence the quart. In the reign of Charles II. the consumption of French wines was two-fifths that of the whole of England. The favourite vintages were those of Bordeaux, Burgundy, and Hermitage : Champagne, although known in this country so early as the time of Henry VIII., did not come into general use till after the Restoration. In *The World*, a daily journal, of

December the 6th, 1788, a wine-merchant, named Fell Parker, advertises "a parcel of exceedingly fine Vidonia wine, lately landed out of the *Scipio*, captain Kirkman, from the island of Teneriffe, to be sold at 33*l.* the pipe. Part of the said wine is bottled off and packed for sale in four-dozen hampers, to be sold at one guinea the dozen, bottles and hampers included." He also offers "fine French Claret" at twenty guineas the hogs-head, "Claret bottled in London" at from twenty-four shillings to thirty-six shillings the dozen, and "Claret of the finest quality, bottled in Bordeaux," at forty-four shillings the dozen. "Ten-year-old Sherry" is quoted at twenty-eight shillings the dozen; and "red Port wine" at twenty-two shillings. "Rich Malmsey Madeira" cost thirty-two shillings a dozen; "old Hock" forty-six shillings a dozen; "Vin de Grave," "Preniac," and "Frontinac" each thirty shillings a dozen; and for all these wines the prices in wood are also given, as if selling in bulk formed a considerable portion of his business.

The dramas of the Elizabethan age further abound with sinister allusions to rouge, pomades, perfumes, &c.; but one of the prime cosmetics was a frequent use of the bath, and the external application of wine. Strutt quotes from an old MS. a recipe to render the complexion of a healthful ruddy tone. The person was to take a warm bath of a sufficient temperature to induce free perspiration, and afterwards wash his face with wine, "so should he be both faire and roddy." Mr. Lodge, in his *Illustrations of British History*, preserves a letter from the earl of Shrewsbury, who had charge of the unhappy queen of Scots. The earl reports that the royal captive demanded *wine for her bath*; and, whilst complaining of so large a consumption, requires an increased allowance to meet the deficiency. In those days of artificial adornments a bath of milk was also in much favour.*

* Ass's milk has always been rightly considered as the richest kind of any, and esteemed to be very efficacious in whitening the skin and complexion of females. So much did that idea prevail in former ages, that Poppæa, the wife of the emperor Nero, is said to have always kept near her as many as 500 of these animals, and used to bathe the whole of her body in their milk, thinking that it also conferred additional suppleness to the skin.

Beauties somewhat *passée* bathed in wine to allay their spots and wrinkles,—perhaps not without effect, for wine certainly is a wholesome astringent, if not an excellent detergent ; whilst youthful belles in their turn, bathed in milk to preserve the smoothness, delicacy, and elasticity of the skin. It is on record that, in the time of Pedro the Cruel, the Spanish knights carried their worship of beauty so far as to contend for and drink of the water in which ladies of rank had bathed, more especially in honour of the beautiful Maria de Padilla, then the idol of the court.* We do not find, however, that English chivalry evinced any desire to imitate the gallantry of the more romantic Iberian knights, notwithstanding the substitution of wine for water by the less fortunate Mary.

It is somewhat noteworthy, that early in the 17th century, and for a long time afterwards, most wines were retailed from the wood. An act of 1638 even prohibits the sale in bottles, and directs it to be supplied in future in just measures only,—an injudicious enactment, as the lighter wines, when in draught, cannot be easily preserved sound in the cask above a certain number of weeks. This circumstance, however, may help to explain the origin of the complaints concerning the frequent adulteration of wine attributed to the vintners, as well as the object of the numerous receipts for ‘mending and restoring’ wines met with in old writers. Whatever may have been the motives that impelled such crude legislation, it was not allowed to remain inoperative, as we thus learn from a cotemporary and trustworthy witness:—

“But since Powell so lately was fin’d fifty pound,
For fetching up bottles from cellar profound,
When oblig’d by the law to sell wine by the quart,
He has always been fretful, and peevish, and short,—
But ’twixt humour and purse there’s a sympathy found.”

This is a further quotation from the *Search after Claret*, the playful burlesque already adverted to, which, with its sprightly compeer, *A Search after Wit*, is sufficiently rare to rank high in

* This curious anecdote finds mention in lady Sidney Herbert’s agreeable work *Impressions of Spain*, as gleaned by her from the ancient archives of Seville.

the estimation of eager bibliopolists. In the latter *brochure* wit is thus defined :—

“’Tis a thing that’s more easie to know than express,
 ’Tis all the creation in its holyday dress :
 ’Tis a pleasant gay humour, not sullen, nor proud,
 Ridiculous, saucy, or noisie, or loud.
 ’Tis all that is lovely, and sprightly, and fair ;
 ’Tis a flash when the soul comes abroad to take air ;
 ’Tis a flame can the sun’s paler splendour outshine,
 ’Tis unbounded, eternal, immortal, divine !”

Another curious relic of the early part of the seventeenth century is preserved in a humorous dramatic scene, wherein a contention for superiority and precedence is warmly sustained between several familiar liquors in *propria personâ*,—SUGAR, TOAST, and WATER being occasional interlocutors. The extract here given well represents the vivacity of the speakers, and the aptitude of their playful banter, which finally brought the doughty quarrel to a happy termination. The date is 1621.

Wine, Beere, and Ale

TOGETHER BY THE EARES.

Enter WINE and BEERE, meeting.

Wine. How ! Beere ? [*aside.*] We are not very good friends. No matter : I scorne to avoid him.

Beere. Beere—leave, sir ! [*justles Wine.*]

Wine. So me thinkes. How now, Beere ! running a tilt ? Dost not know me ?

Beere. I doe meane to have the wall on you.

Wine. The wall of me ? Learne better manners, or I may chance to broach you.

Beere. Broach me ? Alas, poor Wine ! tis not your *fieri-facias* can make Beere afraid. Thy betters know the strength of Beere.

Wine. You’le leave your impudence, and learne to know your superiours, Beere, or I may chance to have you stopt up. What ! never leave working ? I am none of your fellowes.

Beere. I scorne thou shouldst.

Wine. I am a companion for Princes. I am sent for by the Citizens, visited by the Gallants, kist by the Gentlewomen. I am their life, their genius, their poetickall Fury, the Helicon of the Muses, of better value than Beere. I should be sorry else.

Beere. Thou art sorie wine indeed sometimes. Value? you are come up of late. Men pay deere for your company, and repent it : that gives you not the precedencie. Though Beere set not so great a price upon himselfe, he meanes not to bate a graine of his worth, nor subscribe to Wine for all his braveries.

Wine. Not to mee?

Beere. Not to you. Why, whence come you, pray?

Wine. From France, from Spaine, from Greece.

Beere. Thou art a mad Greeke indeed.

Wine. Who dares denie that I have been a traveller?

Beere. A traveller in a tumbrell. A little beere will go further. Why, Wine, art not thou kept under locke and key? confinde to some corner of a cellar, and there, indeed, commonly close prisoner; whilst Beere goes abroad, and rendezvous in every place?

Wine. Thou in every place? Beere, I am asham'd of thee.

Beere. Be asham'd of thyself; and blush, Wine, thou art no better. Thou art an hypocrite, Wine; art all white sometimes, but more changeable than Proteus. Thou wouldst take upon thee to comfort the blood, but hast beene the cause that too many noble veines have beene emptied. Thy vertue is to betray secrets; and yet thou darest stand upon thy credit, and preferre thyselfe to Beere,—that is as clear as day.

Wine. The vessell of your wit leakes, Beere. Why, thou art drunke.

Beere. So art thou, Wine, every day i' th' weeke, and art faine to be carried forth of doors.

Wine. I scorne thy words! thou art base, Beere! Wine is well borne, has good breeding and bringing up. Thou deservest to be carted, Beere.

Beere. Carted? Thou wouldst be carted thyselfe, rackt and drawne for thy basenesse, Wine. Well borne? Did not every man call you Bastard tother day? And for breeding, I know none thou hast, except it bee diseases.

Wine. Sirra! if I take you in hand, I shall make you small-beere.

Beere. Take heede I doe not make vinegar of you first.

Wine. Come, come, Beere; you forget how low you were tother day. Provoke me not, lest I bestow a firkin on you.

Beere. Strike an thou dar'st, Wine.

Enter Ale.

Ale. Umph! what's this? It seemes there is a great difference between Wine and Beere. See! 'tis come to a challenge.

[*Wine throwes down his glove, which Beere takes up.*]

Wine. Remember the place, and weapon.

Ale. Why, how now ! What ! fight and kill one another ?

Wine. Alas, poor Beere ! I account him dead already.

Beere. No, sir ; you may find Beere quick enough to pierce your hogshead. I shall remember.

Ale. But heare. Ale is a friend to you both : let me know your difference.

Beere. He has disgrac'd me.

Wine. Thou hast disgrac'd thyselfe in thy comparisons. Wine must be acknowledged the Nectar of all drinkes, the prince of liquors.

Beere. To wash bootes !

Ale. Harkee, you ! Are you both mad ? Doe you contend for that in justice belongs to another ? I tell you, Wine and Beere, I do not relish you. Superioritie is mine. Ale is the prince of liquors, and you are both my subjects.

Both. Wee thy subjects ?

Wine. O base Ale !

Beere. O muddy Ale !

Ale. Leave your railing, and attend my reasons. I claim your duties to mee for many prerogatives ; my antiquitie, my riches, my learning, my gravity. Now for my strength and invincibilitie—

Beere. Talk no more of strength. None but Beere deserves to be call'd strong. No pen is able to set downe my victories. I ? why I have been the destruction—

Wine. Of Troy, hast not ? If killing be your conquest, every Quacke-salving knave may have the credit of a rare Phisician that sends more to the churchyard than diseases doe. I, Wine, comfort and preserve ; let that be my character. I am cousin-german to the blood ; not so like in my appearance as I am in nature. I repaire the debilities of age, and revive the refrigerated spirits, exhilarate the heart, and steele the brow with confidence. For you both the poet hath drawne your memoriall in one,—

“—— Nil spissius illa

Dum bibitur, nil clarius est dum mingitur ; unde
Constat quod multas fæces in corpore linquat.”

Nothing goes in so thicke,

Nothing comes out so thinne ;

It needs must follow then,

Your dregs are all within.

Ale. Nay, but hearke. 'Tis not your Latine will carry my reputation away. And for my strength and honour in the warres, know that Ale is a knight of Malta, and dares fight with any man that beares a head.

'Tis more safe to believe what a souldier I am, than try what I can doe.

Beere. If you looke thus fiercely, Ale, you may fright men well enough, and be terrible by weake stomachs; but if you call to mind the puissance and valour of Beere, invincible Beere, tumble-downe Beere, you must sing a Palinode. I? why I have overthrowne armies. How easie is it for mee to take a citie when I can tame constables, and make 'em all resigne their weapons. As for my vertue in preserving and nourishing the body wherein you both so glory, you are not to compare with mee, since thousands every day come to receive their healths from mee.

Wine. Kings and princes from me; and, like them, I am served in plate.

Ale. But thou art come downe of late to a glasse, Wine; and that's the reason, I thinke, so many vintners have broake. Now having given you sufficient reasons for your acknowledgement of my principalitie, let your knees witnesse your obedience to your King, and I will grace you both by making you Squires of my body, right honourable Ale-Squires.

Wine. This is beyond suffering! Was ever Wine so under-valued? Barbarous detractors, whose beginning came from a dunghill, I defie you! Bacchus! looke downe, and see me vindicate thine honour. I scorne to procrastinate longer, and this minute you shall give account of your insolencies. I am an enemy to both.

Ale. Is Wine drawne? Then have at you: I'll make good Ale.

Beere. I stand for the honour of Beere, were you an army.

[*As they offer to fight, Water comes running in.*]

Water. Hold, hold, hold!

Beere. What tide brought you hither, Water?

Water. The pure streame of my affection. Oh! how I am troubled!

Ale. But why doe we not fight?

Water. Doe not talke of fighting. Is it not time that Water should come to quench the fire of such contention? I tell you the care of your preservation made me breake my banks to come to you, that you might see the overflowing love I beare you. Will you referre yourselves to mee, and wade no further in these discontentments? I will undertake your reconcilement and qualification.

Wine. To thee, Water? Wilt thou take upon thee to correct our irregularitie? Thou often goest beyond thy bounds thyselfe. But if they consent, I shall.

Beere. I am content.

Ale. And I.

Water. Then, without further circumlocution or insinuation, Water runnes to the matter. You shall no more contend for excellence, for Water shall allow each of you a singularity.

Ale. Water has a deep judgement. [Enter Toast.

* * * * *

Wine. Let's in, and make 'em friends. How now, Toast !

Beere. Why, Toast ! what dost meane to doe with that knife ?

Toast. Harkee, you Beere, March-beere ; I must stirre you a little. What colour had you to quarrell with my master ?

Ale. We were at difference, and Wine too. But——

Toast. Wine too, but ! But me no buts ; I care not a strawe for his buts. D'ye heare, sir ? Doe you long to be Graves wine ?

Wine. We are all friends agen.

Water. Ay, ay ; all friends, on my word, Toast.

Toast. Fire and Water are not to be trusted. Away, New River, away ! I wash my hands of thee. I am for any thing but Water.

Water. [*musicke.*] Hark ! musicke ? Oh, some friends of mine ; I know 'em : they often come upon the water. Let's entertaine the ayre a little. How ! Never a voice among you ?

SONG.

Wine. I, joviall Wine, exhilarate the heart.

Beere. March-Beere is drink for a king.

Ale. But Ale, bonny Ale, with spice and a toast,
In the morning's a daintie thing.

Chorus. { Then let us be merry, wash sorrow away,
 { Wine, Beere, and Ale shall be drunke to-day.

Wine. I, generous Wine, am for the Court.

Beere. The Citie calls for Beere.

Ale. But Ale, bonny Ale, like a lord of the soil,
In the Countrey shall domineer.

Chorus. { Then let us be merry, wash sorrow away,
 { Wine, Beere, and Ale shall be drunke to-day.

Water. Why now, my friends, could I dance for joy.

Ale. Now you talke of dancing, Wine, 'tis one of your qualities. Let's pay the musicians all together. What say you ?

Beere. Strike up, Piper !

Wine. Lustily ! We'll make a merry day on't, and leave out none.

[A dance follows, wherein the several natures
of them all are figured and represented.]

Coeval with the rise of the Georgian era there appeared, fresh from the press, a Bacchanalian effusion ycleped *The Praise of*

Drunkennes, a curious addition to the fertile literature of that period. Possessing some merit as well as much eccentricity, a brief description of a publication bearing so questionable and repelling a name* may be of interest to the reader. It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that, whilst avowedly advocating the free use and enjoyment of wine as a needful and sustaining beverage under the depressive influences of mental or physical exhaustion, the author essayed to sully his pages by vulgar or indiscriminate laudations of habitual ebriety, or insidious commendations of a sottish career of reckless dissipation. That its singular title, indeed, was only too well calculated to prove more misleading than accurate, seems to have been oppressively felt by the writer himself, since he thus introduces his book to the notice of its readers: "If ever Preface might serve for an apology, certainly this ought to do so. The bare title of the book is enough to have it universally cried down, and to give the world an ill opinion of its author; for people will not be backward to say, that he who writes the praise of drunkenness must be a drunkard by profession. To this I answer, I am very well contented that the world should believe me as much a drunkard, as Erasmus, who wrote *The Praise of Folly*, was a fool, and weigh me in the same balance." Let us test this defiant exordium by a cursory glance at the table of contents, with its several explanatory headings; viz., CHAP. I. That one must be merry. II. That wine expels sorrow, and excites mirth. III. IV. That it is good for the health; and that old people ought sometimes to get drunk. V. That wine creates wit. VI. That wine makes one eloquent; together with other kindred subjects through its several thirty-two chapters, interspersed with numerous quotations from both French and classic lyrics. The following passages, culled at random, will sufficiently indicate the author's design and intelligence:—

"Of all the means proper to drive away sorrow, and excite mirth in the minds of men, wine is certainly the most agreeable and efficacious. For, in the first place, it banishes all manner of cares, and makes us en-

* *Ebrietatis Encomium; or, The Praise of Drunkenness.* By BONIFACE OINOPHILUS, *de Monte Fiascone*, A.B.C. London, 1723.

tirely forget them. . . . Seneca maintained that 'the soul must not always be bent: one must sometimes allow it a little pleasure.' Socrates was not ashamed to pass the time with children. Cato enjoyed himself in drinking plentifully when his mind had been too much wearied out in public affairs. Scipio knew very well how to move that body, so much inured to wars and triumphs, without breaking it. . . . One must therefore allow the mind some recreation; it makes it more gay and peaceful. You should sometimes walk in the open air, that the mind may exalt itself by viewing the heavens and breathing at ease; sometimes take the air in your chariot, and the ride and the change of scene will re-establish you in your vigour; or you may eat and drink a little more plenteously than usual. Sometimes, even, we must go as far as to get drunk; not, indeed, with an intention to drown ourselves in wine, but to drown our cares and sorrows.—*De Tranquillitate.*

"Avicenna and Rasis, most excellent physicians of Arabia, say 'that it is a thing very salutary and wholesome to get drunk sometimes.' M. Hofman confirms what has been just said, and adds thereto the testimony of others. Avicenna, says he, absolutely approves getting drunk once or twice every month, and alleges for it physical reasons. Dioscorides observes that drunkenness is not always hurtful, but that very often it is necessary for the conservation of health. Homer says that Nestor, who lived so long, 'toss'd off huge bocals of wine,' [about three pints each]. . . . Wine taken with some excess is excellent for old people; for

'It does no harm to take a glass or two,
'Tho' from great numbers mighty ills ensue.'

Besides, the infirmities of an advanced age require some consolation and diversion. Hence the proverb, that 'Wine is as milk to old men;' and Tirellus, in his *History*, declares the same thing when he says that 'Wine is the nutriment of natural heat.'

"As wine increases the quantity of animal spirits by the fumes which it sends to the brain, it is easy to comprehend its great advantage to dull and heavy minds, so that to them particularly applies the saying that 'Wine sets an edge to wit;' and it has grown into a proverb, that water-drinkers are not near so knowing as those who drink wine. '*Non idem sapere possunt qui aquam et qui vinum bibunt.*' Hofman further asserts, 'that those climates which produce good wine produce also people that have infinitely more wit than those of the North, who drink nothing but beer.' And if we might believe Plato, 'he could never open the gates of Poesy till he was a little beyond himself.' Horace goes yet farther, and Ovid bewailed himself bitterly for want of wine in

his exile. It is to wine that we owe the inspirations of Æschylus and Anacreon ; Herodes, the orator, never spoke better than after drinking pretty freely ; and it was over the bottle that Rabelais composed the famous ‘ Acts and Gestes of Gargantua and his son Pantagruel.’

“ Books of travel inform us, that ‘ the priests of the kingdom of Thibet, whom they call Llamas, drink a good quantity of wine on their days of fasting and devotion, that they may have, to use their own words, ‘ the tongue prompt and ready to say their orisons.’ According to this doctrine, Palingenius was much in the wrong to say that ‘ wine makes churchmen incapable of performing the duties of their functions.’ Surely, he never could have conversed much with the clergy. The Friars would have told him they never perform their office without taking a Choir cup. *Experto crede Roberto*, as the saying is. ‘ There’s no false Latin in this,’ said a good Monk to me, once upon a time, drawing forth from under his cassock a double flask. ‘ You are much in the right on’t, brother Peter,’ said I. ‘ I believe as the Church believes, and so—my service to you : and here’s to the pious memory of St. Boniface !’ and, indeed, the vehicle proved capaciously orthodox.

“ Sadness is in the highest degree prejudicial to health, and causes abundance of distempers. There is no one ignorant of this truth. Joy, or mirth, on the contrary, prevents and forces them away. It is, as the Arabians say, ‘ the flower and spirit of a brisk and lively health.’ The mingling of pleasures with the affairs of life is a very wise maxim ; and wine drives away both sorrow and care, and calls them up from the very bottom of the soul. Let me then say in the words of one of the lovely Anacreontics of the famous Monsieur la Motte,—

“ Bûvons, amis, le temps s’enfuit,
Menageons bien ce court espace ;
Peut-être une eternelle nuit
Eteindra le jour qui se passe.

“ Peut-être que Caron demain
Nous recevra tous dans sa barque ;
Saisissons un moment certain
C’est autant de pris sur la parque.

“ À l’envi laissons-nous saisir
Aux transports d’une douce yvresse ;
Qu’importe, si c’est un plaisir,
Que ce soit folie ou sagesse.”—*Fables Nouvelles*.



SECTION V.

“Great was the blessing when the gods did show
Sweet wine to those who how to use it know ;
But when rash men its righteous use pervert,
They blindly court a trifling source of hurt.
For to the first it nourishment supplies,
Strengthens the body, while the mind grows wise :
A wholesome physic, too : when mixt with potions,
Heals wounds as sure as plasters or cold lotions.”—*Menestheus*.

*Restrictive Influence of Legislation.—Free Recourse to
ardent Spirits.—Alimentary Properties of Alcohol.*



MID the gigantic developement of British commerce in almost every other direction, it is not a little singular that the consumption of wine in this country has not kept pace with the progress of population, whilst the demand for spirits has extended enormously.

It can hardly be attributed to a growing sense of refinement and sobriety among the people, since the relish for ardent spirit increases in a much larger ratio than the diminished use of wine ; and, certainly, if the juice of the grape is not replete with all that gives it the first place in human luxuries,—if the aroma, the bouquet, and piquancy of the genuine liquor are neither prized nor wanted, and heavy, dull intoxication and prostration of the faculties thought preferable to a pleasing cheerfulness, and to the draught which sustains and enlivens without injury or overwrought excitement, it would be extravagant and irrational to waste money on the products of foreign climes. Nothing, however, can fill the place of the true blood of the grape, and wine has been ever commended as the solace and delight of admiring nations, even from the days of the Flood, and it is difficult to imagine that more was not consumed in Great Britain when the population amounted to sixteen millions, than when it was only ten. Verily, the deficiency

could not be owing to the badness of the times, for England in the interim had grown still more rapidly in material wealth than she multiplied in numbers, with improved conditions of social life. Dr. Jules Guyot, indeed, is of opinion that "drinks act not only upon the individual; they re-act upon families, upon districts, and upon nations. They help to form the character." Happy would be the man who could educate a people to appreciate the light and refreshing stimulants, and to abjure the use of ardent spirits,—impure drink weakens the body, depreciates the mental powers, engenders vice: and happier still would he be who could convince the world that the adulterations by fiery mixtures of a national beverage is a violation of the wise limitations of nature, and done at the expense of the higher and nobler faculties that distinguish humanity.

The first spirit of which we have any account in Europe was made from the grape, and sold as a medicine, both in Italy and Spain, under the Arabic term *alcohol*. The date of its first discovery, or whence its origin, still remains uncertain. In the works of the learned Geber, usually called the Arab, there are minute directions concerning the process of distillation, but in what age he lived authors do not seem to agree, although he is generally supposed to have been born in the seventh, or, as some think, in the eighth century. It is, however, clear from his style and precision that the art of distillation was well understood in his time, and had attained considerable perfection. About the period when he lived a knowledge of the arts and sciences was much cultivated, and continued to extend in proportion to the conquests of the caliphs, whose example and influence diffused a love of literature over an empire that spread from the confines of Tartary to the Indian and Mediterranean seas, and from the isthmus of Suez to the Atlantic ocean. Their speculative and visionary hope of finding an elixir of immortality led them to the discovery of alcohol, and entailed on posterity the manufacture of a liquor which, soon assuming large proportions, proved a blessing indeed to many, but to thousands a penal curse. As the chronicles of old are pertinaciously silent respecting this remarkable triumph of science, the above conjectural appropriation seems to have

been favoured with pretty general acceptance, and the inventor's mantle of fame finally settled on the shoulders of the renowned Arabian chemist, Geber. Yet, if reliance may be placed on the teachings of the venerable Evonymvs, the true origin of the art of distillation must be sought for at a period much anterior to this time. In a copious treatise on the subject,* illustrated by numerous spirited engravings of various apparatus and implements anciently so employed, the author prefaces his labours with the following suggestive comments :—

“Some do ascribe vnto Hierom Brunswick, which about lxx. yeares past practised at Argentyne the original of getting out waters, as they cal them, and liquors and oyles out of simple medicines by the strength of fire ; but they are much deceived, for this art was not inuented by hym, but written in our Dutch tounge, and first set out by him. In myne opinion, this inuencion is so auncient as the inuencion of the very Chymia, whych I suppose was celebrated first and put in writing by men that vsed the Punical, or elles the Arabicke tounge, a little after the Grecion physicions. Of those I speake that write almoste the latest, as Actius, Oribasus, Actuarius, Psellus. In certayne libraries in Italy, euen at this daye, are ther extant certayn writings of Chymia by certayne late Grecians ; namely, a certayn philosopher called Stephan. Also a booke intituled of the Chaunging of Mettals, which comonly are called Chymia, or Arcymia. There is also a booke to be had of Alchymia, made by Auicenna vnto Assis, a philosopher. Geber, (the nephew of I cannot tel what great Mahomet,) who is celebrated as a captayne and prince of this science, in what age he lyved I cannot easily saye, althoughe I iudge him not to haue bene the first inuentor of this arte, but one that brought it to lyght, and renoumed it. This man, in his worke intituled *Summæ Perfectionis*, discoursing excellently, and disputing many things of destillation generallye, wryteth that diuers maners of destilling are knowen almost of all men, euen as an auncient inuention ; yea, in hys tyme also no new thing. Certayne late writers declare the wrytinges of Alchymia, not onely of Albertus Magnus, S. Thomas, Rhaza, and Auicenna, Arabike physicions, but also of Aristotle, Plato, and Solomon,—at the least wyse, mencion to be made by them of it ;

* “THE TREASURE OF EVONYMVS, a new booke of Distillation of Waters : containing the most wonderful hid Secrets of Nature touching the most apt Formes to prepare and distill Medicines to the contention of Helth,” &c. &c. Translated out of Latin by Peter Morwyng. [black letter.] The Colophon : “Imprinted by John Day, dwelling ouer Aldersgate, beneath Saynt Martines, the fyrst of June, 1565.”

to whom I geue small credence, not that I thyncke this studye to be the newer, but certesse that it was eyther unknowen to these philosophers, or mencioned in no place. Some there be that expound featly and wyttely at the saininges of the Poets, and chiefly that of the Golden Fleece, sought by the Argonautæ, vnto the multiplying of gold, or arte of enterchaunging of mettals. Some also ascende higher, and make the first men, by and by after the beginning of the world, authors thereof. Some simplye make it most auncient, and affirme that no certaynty is to be had of the first inuenter. At Padua, in Italy, in our time was found a most auncient monument ; namelye, an earthen pot having upon it this hexasticon :—

“ This sacred to God Pluto, (theves,) ware that ye touch not,
 Unknown is it to you all this that is hid in a pot ;
 For the elements hath ishut up, digested with much paine,
 In this smal vessel the great Olibius certayne :
 Plenty, with thy frutefull horn as a gard, be thou presente,
 Least the price pearish of this liquor most excellent.

Within this pot was another little pot with an inscription of this minatory verse :—

“ Away frô hence, ye mightie theves, trudge elsewhere and go by,
 What seek ye with your spying eies, why do ye pore and pry ;
 Hence with your hatted Mercury, and with his rod also,
 This gift is sacred by the greatst vnto the greatst Ploto.

“ Again : within this lesser pot was found a light yet burning betwene two phials, the one of golde, the other of siluer, ful of a certayne moste pure liquor, by vertue whereof they beleue that this lighte hadde burnte many a yeare, as dyd note, in their collections and gatherings of auncient inscriptions or poesies, Petrus Appianus and Bartholomeus ; Amentous, Hermalaus, and also Barbarus in his *Corollarium*, make mention of the same thing. The remembrance whereof, least it should perish, we haue added hereunto. Therefore it appeareth that the study of this art was of most antiquity amongst the barberous nacions, but derived vnto the Romaines and Grekes somewhat late ; neither before, perauenture, that the Romaines obtained the dominion of great part of the world : if sooner, yet couertlye, and retayned amongst a very few.”

The Genoese, in the 13th century, dealt largely in the product of the still, and are said to have made considerable gains by the sale of *aqua vitæ*. They were the first Europeans who made this liquor from grain, which they sold in small bottles at a very dear rate ; but a long period elapsed after its introduction

as a cordial, ere brandy from the grape was employed in the preservation of wine. Subsequent improvements in its manufacture brought the spirit into more frequent and common use, when it soon became an article of considerable value and extensive remunerative commerce.

When a national fermented beverage is pure, wholesome, and cheap, the taste of its people for ardent spirits must decline ; but when it is impure, and unwholesome, and dear, a demand for a more potent liquor will inevitably follow. Between the years 1801 and 1851 the consumption of wine per head fell off 48 per cent. as compared with the increase of population.

Year.	Population.	Customs Revenue.	Home Consumption, in gals.	Consumption per head.
1801	15,500,000	2,185,561	6,376,710	0·431
1851	27,309,000	1,776,247	6,280,653	0·230

Much of this recession may be traced to the pernicious system of differential and prohibitory duties so pertinaciously adhered to by successive administrations, and the baneful tendency of restrictive regulations on social and sanitary purposes, no less than to financial considerations. Recent statistics from some of the principal European countries show that in France and Portugal the consumption is 100 litres (about equal to the same number of imperial quarts) per head of the population ; in Austria 57 ; in Switzerland 56 ; in Spain 33 ; in England 1·013, so that we are clearly not a wine-drinking nation, where the love and cheapness of beer constitutes it the chief beverage of the people.

Wisdom is proverbially slow of growth, but when the germ is once fairly planted, a rich harvest of its own fruits in due time is sure to follow, as is now pretty obvious to modern statesmen. By a Parliamentary return issued in the session of 1865, it further appears that the consumption of foreign and colonial spirits in Great Britain had fallen from 0·31 gallon per head in 1798-1800, to 0·21 in 1858-60 ; and in Ireland from 0·9 gallon to 0·3. The quantity consumed of home-made spirits, on the con-

trary, rose from 0·54 gallon per head in Great Britain to 0·76, and in Ireland from 0·59 to 0·91. During the same interval, foreign and colonial wines sustained a diminution of from 0·46 to 0·27 gallon per head in Great Britain ; and in Ireland from 0·28 to 0·9. Facts like these may have helped to convince our statesmen that revenue is easier raised by moderate imposts based on the intrinsic value or cost of the various articles imported, which alone can confer on commerce its fertilizing influence, and establish international feelings of amity and goodwill. The repulsive character of the fiscal charges placed on wine had long engaged the attention and disapproval of earnest politicians, as opposed to the liberal and enlightened commercial principles which now form the corner-stone of England's pre-eminence and prosperity. Although a discussion of the doctrine and precepts of free-trade might be fairly regarded as somewhat out of place here, as well as beyond the scope and tenour of the main purpose of this work, yet some of the notions involved are so antiquated and delusive, that a brief allusion to the prominent fallacies may not be altogether impertinent or devoid of interest.

From the period of the Norman conquest to the year 1660, the wines of Guienne, Poitu, and Gascony came in, subject to moderate duties, which by an Act of 12 Charles II., c. 4, was fixed at thirteen pence the gallon. The trade with France continued on an equitable basis until 1675, when popular clamour was sedulously fomented against the existing freedom of interchange as erroneous and destructive ; for the balance of trade, was it not pressing adversely against us ? and that to the extent already of nearly a million sterling ? England, it was urged, must be on the very verge of ruin : her best interests were being compromised, her stability jeopardized, rents were falling, and all, it was argued, owing to so much hard cash passing over to France in payment of her staple products. The commercial compact established between the two countries was indignantly annulled, and in 1678 a British parliament in its wisdom enacted that "the trade with France was detrimental to the kingdom,"—the bucolic legislators of that day apparently insensible or indifferent to the policy and advantage of cultivating free mercantile intercourse with the most

civilized and industrious nation on the mainland of Europe. The import of French wine was altogether prohibited from 1679 to 1685, when trade being again resumed, it extended itself yet more largely than before,—a transient prosperity, however, soon to be overshadowed by the antagonistic influences of the notable Methuen treaty with Portugal, more fully adverted to in another section. Matters were permitted thus to continue without material variation for an entire century, when the announcement of a new fiscal convention negotiated by Mr. Pitt in 1787 aroused a fierce protest from rival political economists, who, with the insidious cry of “No reciprocity,” charged him with a gratuitous sacrifice of 20,000*l.* of revenue, by reducing the impost on French wines from 96*l.* to 50*l.* the tun ;—a differential duty of 34*l.* 13*s.* 8*d.* being, in their view, insufficient to protect the interests of Portugal, whose people, they contended, took our manufactures and the produce of our fisheries in exchange, instead of the specie payments exacted by our astute neighbours. The measure, moreover, was stoutly resisted in Parliament by Charles Fox, who said “it was monstrous to propose any trading league with that country, because the French ought to be regarded as our natural enemies.”

The assailants of the British minister were the worthy inheritors of the doctrines so rife in Charles's days, the same obliquity of vision or culpable indifference marking successive legislators down to the present reign. In the interim the wine duties remained in very inequitable disproportion to the item of first cost, ranging as they did from 200 to 600 per cent. on some of the red wines of Spain, whilst on the sherries they varied between 312 and 45 per cent. *ad valorem*. On French wines the duty payable ranged from 400 to 22 per cent. ; on Lisbon from 338 to 154, and on Port from 221 to 66 per cent.,—a fiscal burthen oppressive, impolitic, and unproductive. Whilst the consumption of other articles of foreign origin expanded above the ratio of an increasing population, that of wine alone stood still or receded. So convenient, however, and so congenial to men in office was the facile mode of levying these duties, that they viewed with unruffled complacency a diminution, between 1800 and 1850, of

700,000 gallons annually; and, in further aggravation of the mischief, the duty was tampered with from time to time, and even increased on all wines, but principally on those of France, which were taxed per gallon as follows:—

	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
In 1801 . .	10	2½	In 1805 . .	13	8½	In 1819 . .	13	9
„ 1802 . .	10	7½	„ 1809 . .	19	8½	„ 1825 . .	7	2½
„ 1803 . .	12	5¼	„ 1813 . .	19	3½	„ 1826 . .	7	3
„ 1804 . .	13	6½	„ 1814 . .	13	8½	„ 1835 . .	5	9

Under such depressing fluctuations, and burthened at one time with a fiscal impost of 19*s.* 8½*d.* on an article, the vintage price of which did not in some cases exceed 1*s.* or 1*s.* 6*d.*, commercial energy must necessarily be paralysed, and consumption dwindle towards zero.—“No matter,” cries Red Tape, “wine is a luxury. We collect the duty without trouble, and are content to leave it where it is.” England thus gradually became the smallest wine-consumer in Europe: her wine was bad, her wine was dear, and, above all, was systematically tampered with, until it had lost all the original beneficial properties of its nature.

Before closing this subject, in common fairness it should be mentioned, that so far back as 1713 proposals for a commercial tariff based on reciprocal duties of five per cent. were made to England by the French minister, Mons. de Torcy, which were hastily and contumeliously rejected. It was almost an axiom with the last century, that according as traffic with France was open or close, the balance of trade constantly inclined for or against this country; and it is rather amusing to see in the present day the same narrow views and shallow arguments reproduced in the interests of French manufacturers, and maintained with equal vigour and acrimony. In spite, however, of adverse legislation, the commerce of England continued to flourish, and after the lapse of two eventful centuries, by adopting and enforcing the principles of free barter we tacitly admit that our primitive commercial notions were crude and erroneous, and that the permanent interests of nations and communities are best served and consolidated by unloosing the shackles unwisely imposed on mutual interchange and facility of traffic.

Liquors and fermented drinks have been ever in such general acceptance and use throughout the habitable portions of the world, that a desire for stimulants of some sort, to soothe the manifold ills of frail humanity, would seem to be a natural instinct of mankind, since the dullest savages, who have scarcely learned the use of fire, invariably possess a sufficing process of their own to raise something, liquid or solid, wherewith to procure a brief oblivion from corroding care. Poppies, grain, trees, roots, and a thousand other like ingredients have been steeped, pressed, squeezed, pounded, fermented, and purified, to obtain a fleeting unconsciousness of passing miseries. The noble and the wealthy have their cellars full of neatly sealed and well-piled bottles, the better to enable them to endure the crosses and privations of life : the poor man is seeking the same end when he expends his scanty halfpence in gin. The spontaneous fruits and plants of the fields once found to yield various refreshing and excellent liquors, a ferment of their saps and juices was soon rendered subservient to the composition of many an agreeable or exciting beverage ; and whatever their climate or social state, most people under the sun have their refreshing or inebriating liquors and soothing mulsums. Thus, the Turk has his maslâk, the Persians their sherbet, the Indians their fulo, rum, arrack, and punch ; whilst the people of other communities abound in varying drinks, according to the diversity of their vegetable products. These simulations are so multifarious and ingenious, that a word or two here respecting them may not be thought irrelevant or superfluous.

“England, less favoured by climate than her continental neighbours, is content with her cider and perry, her humble currant, gooseberry, blackberry, and strawberry wines ; whilst France, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Italy, and Hungary vie with each other for supremacy in the value and extent of the several vintages they derive from the differing varieties of their vines, as modified by the influence of soil and temperature. In Jamaica and Brazil they make a delicious wine from a fruit called *ananas*, a species of pine-apple, not much inferior to a rich Malmsey. The Chinese make curious drinks from their fruits ; so do the Brazilians and South Americans,—as from their cocoa-pods, acajou, jacobi, unni, or martillas. The labour of pressing out the natural juice

is saved to the Mexican in his fleshy-leaved agave. It gives him spontaneously his sweet must and his refreshing *pulque*,—i.e. agave wine. As soon as the huge flower of this plant begins to develope, it is cut off, and the terminal bed of the trunk deeply scooped out, when several quarts of sweet juice spring daily from the wound into the improvised basin for three months at a time. The Africans and Indians drink beer and mead, and prepare their famous palm-wine, (which they call *sura*, or toddy,) from the tears of the pierced birch-tree, which is celebrated also as remedial in the stone and scurvy. So the sycamore and walnut being wounded, will weep out their juices, which may be fermented into strong liquors. In Ethiopia mead is the chief drink : it is said to be a delightful beverage, and from it brandy is distilled in Abyssinia not inferior to that of France. The Egyptians make a fermented liquor from rice, barley, and other grain ; the Nubians revel in a similar brewage called *bouza*, obtained from barley, in which they indulge to excess. The Kaffirs prepare an intoxicating drink from millet, which they call *pombie* ; whilst among the Tartar hordes a spirituous liquor called *koumiss*, prepared by fermentation from the milk of mares, forms their leading beverage. The Burmese and the Siamese draw toddy from the palm, and spirits from rice and other grain. In Java ardent spirits are fabricated in large quantities ; and in the Nicobar island the use of similar liquors is very prevalent. The natives are said to be so jovial at their feasts as to drink bumpers of arrack till they can no longer see ; but their favourite tippie is the milk of the cocoa-nut and the fermented juice of the palm, rendered highly intoxicating by their method of sucking it through a quill. The inebriating resources of the Hindoos are of three principal kinds ; one extracted from dregs of sugar, another from bruised rice, and a third from the flowers of the *madhuca*. From this latter the people of Bahar distil a strong spirit, which is sold for so small a price, that for one halfpenny may be had a quantity equal to an English pint. Toddy is also extracted from the wild date-tree, which formerly was very abundant in the territory of Tippoo Saib, who seeing that his subjects frequently debased themselves by drunken revels, commanded all the trees to be cut down, and in places adjacent to the capital the order was rigorously executed. In the neighbouring isle of Ceylon whole woods of the cocoa-tree are set apart for the production of toddy, from which all their arrack is distilled. In the Moluccas, again, the inhabitants extract a wine from a tree called *laudan*, and everywhere the juices of herbs, fruits, seeds, and roots will work and ferment themselves into intoxicating liquors, out of which spirits and brandies may well be manufactured. The Arabians,

Turks, Chinese, Tartars, and other Eastern races make inebriating drinks out of their corn and rice ; some, rather than not be drunk, will swallow opium, detroy, and tobacco, or some other equally exciting stimulant, so great an inclination has mankind to be exalted."—*Harleian Miscellany*.

Among the numerous tribes and nations professing the Mahometan faith liquors of an intoxicating nature are familiar, and secretly in pretty general use ; but as they are publicly prohibited, the more strict observers of that creed have in most places adopted other means to educe the pleasures of intoxication : hence the use of opium and other exhilarating substances. The Rajpoots, Mahrattas, and many Hindoo tribes present opium at their visits and entertainments with the same easy familiarity as is the snuff-box in Europe. To all classes, whether it is smoked, eaten, or drunk, it affords recreation and enjoyment. With a small piece of the drug, a bag of rice, and a pot for water, runners and letter-carriers through the provinces of India perform incredible journeys ; while the messengers of Turkey in like manner, with a few dates or a lump of coarse bread, traverse the trackless desert amid privations and hardships only supportable under the influence of this fascinating opiate. Large quantities are consumed all over the Levant, and the coffee-houses of Constantinople afford striking examples of its pernicious influence when indulged in to excess.

"They begin," says an observant Eastern traveller, "with only half a grain, and increase the dose as they find it needful for the desired effect ; but the man who, at the age of twenty, takes to opium, seldom lives beyond the age of thirty, or thirty-six. In the course of a few years the dose is increased to sixty grains or more. At this time a pallid countenance and extreme leanness announce a state of cachexia, which is only the prelude to a general wasting of flesh. The infatuation is so great, that the certainty of death, and all the infirmities that lead to it, will not deter a person addicted to its use : he coldly answers any one who apprizes him of his danger, that his happiness is indescribable whilst absorbing his opium pill. If asked to define this superhuman felicity, he only says that it is a pleasure not possible to be explained. These besotted beings, however, towards the close of their life experience the most severe pains and craving hunger ; they are tormented

with vehement desires which they are incapable of satisfying ; they experience pains which even their fascinating paregoric cannot assuage ; and become hideous in person, deformed by numerous periostoses, shed their teeth, their eyes sink into their head, and, afflicted with an incessant trembling, they cease to exist a long time before their life is at an end. Strange beings we, who are to be put into a state of elysium by supplying the stomach with a little poppy-juice ! The worst of it is, that the Elysium is afterwards converted into a raging Tartarus for the want of it."

Many persons suppose that opium is used in the same way that tobacco is. This, however, is a mistake. Tobacco can be smoked either standing, walking, or at business. The opium-smoker always lies down when indulging his habit, and gives all his attention to the process of inhaling the fumes of the drug. Before opium can be used by the smoker, it has to be prepared most carefully by persons skilled in its concoction. It is reduced from a solid to a liquid form by boiling with a small quantity of water, and when ready for the pipe, looks like a thin paste or thick, muddy molasses. The opium pipe consists of a reed about an inch in diameter. The aperture in the bowl which admits the drug is not much larger than the head of a pin. One-hundredth part of an ounce is all that can be smoked by a beginner ; but old *débauchés* can use from a quarter to a third of an ounce daily. Tobacco-smokers always emit smoke from their mouths, but an old opium-smoker invariably blows the fumes through his nostrils, and very often absorbs them in his lungs. A tobacco pipe can be lit easily by a match, or a coal of fire, but the opium pipe must be lit with great care, and always by the steady flame of an oil lamp. The small opening in the bowl is held in the flame, and the light is drawn into the reed. After the opium is ignited, the process of smoking is very short ; only one or two whiffs can be taken, and in this way, lighting and smoking, scores of persons resident in Eastern cities spend hour after hour, never ceasing until they drop off into the death-like stupor which is the aim of all opium-smoking. Inveterate smokers live for nothing but the gratification of their appetite. Those who become addicted to the use of the poison seldom live to be more than fifty years of age ; most of them die within five years after

they have reached that stage in which they can consume a third of an ounce a-day.

Sad and humiliating as is the picture of human depravity thus forcibly and, doubtless, truthfully drawn, it will perhaps be somewhat consolatory to learn that, under better self-control, extenuating instances are not altogether wanting even among notorious and life-long consumers of this dangerous opiate. The early knowledge and appreciation of the poppy is abundantly attested by the records of oriental mythology, and classical belief attributes its culture and first dispersion among mankind to the industry of the Egyptians. Greek and Roman physicians, from Dioscorides and Galen, make us familiar with the estimation and uses of the drug in their time, and its various modes of preparation. In our days general literature has been enriched by Dr. Alonzo Calkins of Philadelphia, with a searching and exhaustive treatise on *Opium and the Opium Appetite*, and its physical and moral action on the human frame, revealing to us the true medium between a timorous dread and a rash idolatry of a class of agents powerful alike for good or evil.

"Longevity in the prospective," he remarks, "is to be determined, not upon the citation of special instances exclusively, but from physical condition and social surroundings also. Plato, as the earliest known among philosophical opium-eaters, died in harness, as it were—that is, pen in hand, at the ripe age of eighty-four. Suleyman of Constantinople passed into his ninety-ninth year. Dr. Burnes notes the case of Visrajée, a Cutchee, eighty years old and more, with health unimpaired, though a systematic eater for a lifetime. Schlegel's woman, one might say, lived upon laudanum, having used it regularly from her forty-ninth to her seventieth year, and at the rate of 300 drops in her last years. Dr. Christison instances a woman of seventy, who had been so habituated forty years of the time; and another, a Leith woman, who used half an ounce as long, and lived ten years longer." Other striking instances follow, among which the most wonderful is "a case, within the author's own observation, of an officer of the 60th British Rifles, born in 1766, to whom, after arduous service in all parts of the world, opium had for years been the *pabulum vite*,—his daily dose of sixty grains of the gum, occasionally raised even to seventy-five, producing little perceptible effect beyond the alternative symptoms of constipation and diarrhoea. This Nestor of opium-eaters was still living when these par-

ticulars were written (1870), and his firm step and habitual carriage preserved for him the aspect of a hale and vigorous veteran, scarcely arrived at fourscore years." Mention is further made of the experience of Mahomet Riza Khan, of Shiraz, who took opium enough at a time to poison thirty ordinary persons. The proverbial longevity of opium-eaters among oriental tribes is also vouched for, as well as the immunity enjoyed by the packers and other manipulators in the opium factories of Benares, working in an atmosphere charged with the exhalations from the gummy masses, who attain an average of life beyond their fellow-handicraftsmen in general.

It should not, however, be hastily supposed that Dr. Calkins, in gathering together recorded evidences in this direction, is not fully alive to the many examples of early bodily and mental decay distinctly traceable to the morbid influence of this potent narcotic. He is, certainly, no advocate for total abstinence from what seems, in many cases, the object of an instinctive appetite, on the mere ground of casualties resulting from abuse or excess ; but assumes that, in some form or another, stimulants are the subject of a natural and needful appetite, and that a denial or stint in one direction generally tends towards excess or abnormal indulgence in another. Mr. Robertson, too, a British consul at Canton, in an official report to the home authorities, further remarks that the use and abuse of opium in that country is much exaggerated, and is confined to narrower limits than is commonly supposed. To confirmed smokers, indeed, it becomes a necessity of existence ; by most others it is regarded as a luxury, and excess of consumption is the exception, and not the rule. Owing to its superior quality the Chinese prefer the foreign-grown to the native product ; and even taking the total import into China as equal to 12,000,000*l.* or 13,000,000*l.* per annum, what is that, he asks, for a population numbering little short of 400,000,000 ?

"The leaf of the hemp-plant," observes Mr. Morewood, "known in the East by the name of *bangue*, in the absence of opium is often substituted for it with similar facility and effect. The people use it differently, some taking it as an electuary, while others either smoke or chew it. Among the Moors it is prepared in such a way, that a piece as big as a walnut will for a time deprive a man of all reason and intellect. In the Barbary states it is preferred to opium, from the voluptuous sensa-

tions it never fails to produce. The root of the black henbane is also a strong inebriant, and the berries of the *bella donna*, or deadly nightshade, hold a still more intense control over the mind of its victims, producing symptoms of the most sottish drunkenness. The leaves and flowers of milfoil or yarrow, and clary and saffron produce the same effect. The last exhilarates the spirits to such a degree that, when taken in large doses, it occasions immoderate mirth and involuntary laughter. Among these, and other inebriants, the inspissated milky juice of the common garden lettuce is said to be as powerful in its operation as opium itself."—*Essay on the Use of Inebriating Liquors.*

Copious as this review might appear to be, the subject is not entirely exhausted, for such is the irrepressible ingenuity of man, that for kindred purposes other though less familiar esculents are made subservient to his productive skill. To say nothing of the betel of India, or the kava-plant of the Pacific, or the mobby of America,—a liquor extracted from potatoes, and greatly in favour in the early days of the Republic,—the poisonous portions of the fungus tribe, having a narcotic property, supply the people of Siberia with the means of satisfying their craving for inebriants. There the *amanita muscaria* is collected during the hot season, and hung up in the open air to dry; it is afterwards steeped in whortleberry juice, to which it imparts the flavour of strong wine. Sometimes it is eaten fresh in soups and sauces, but more commonly it is rolled up into a bolus, and swallowed whole. One large or two small fungi form a dose sufficient to cause intoxication for a whole day; and if water be drunk after it, the narcotic action is increased. The desired effect comes on in the course of an hour or two after the dose is taken. Cheerfulness is first produced; then the face becomes flushed, and giddiness and drunkenness follow in the same way as from wine or spirits; involuntary words and actions succeed, and sometimes the final effect is an entire loss of consciousness. In some it promotes remarkable activity, and stimulates to great bodily exertion. In too large doses it induces violent spasms; upon some individuals it produces effects which are very ludicrous. A talkative person cannot keep silence, or his own secrets. One fond of music is constantly singing; and if a person under its influence

wishes to step across a straw or small stick, he takes a stride or jump sufficient to clear the trunk of a tree.

Nor have the more enlightened sons of classic Greece and Rome altogether escaped the imputation of inordinate convivial propensities, and a too free indulgence in the pleasures of gustation ; for we find it stated that Tergilla, who challenged Marcus Cicero to a drinking bout, boasted that he ordinarily drank two gallons at a draught ; * and in yet later times it is on record, that the emperor Maximin, who was no less remarkable for his gigantic stature than his great strength, would drink six gallons at a sitting without committing any breach of social amenity.

“ Pliny, in his day, complains that drunkenness was a study, and that the Romans and Parthians contended for the glory of excessive wine-drinking. Historians relate that one Novellus Torquatus passed through all the higher degrees of civic dignity ; and the greatest glory and distinction he obtained was, for drinking in the presence of Tiberius three gallons of wine at one draught before ever he drew his breath, and without being in any way injuriously affected. . . . Athenæus says that Melanthius wished his own neck as long as a crane's, that he might be longer a-tasting the pleasures of drink. The Germans commonly swallow whole tankards and ell-glasses at a draught, adoring him that drinks fairly and most, and despising the man that will not pledge them. Dutchmen will salute their guests with a pail and a dish, making hogs-heads of their bellies. The Polander thinks him the bravest fellow that drinks most healths, and carries his liquor best, being of opinion there is as much valour in toping as in fighting. The Russians, Swedes, and Danes have so naturalized brandy, *aqua vitæ*, beer, mum, † &c., that they usually drink our Englishmen to death ; so that the most ingenious

* The Roman gallon is equal to seven pints of our measure.

† A beverage once held in great esteem, but now so long obsolete as to be almost forgotten. Mum was the product of a brewage of grain made in the following manner :—“ To seven bushels of wheat malt, and one bushel of oat malt, add one bushel of ground beans, which is sufficient for a hogshead of 63 gallons. The wort produced, when cool, must be stored away in casks, and so soon as it begins to work, add to each hogshead 3 lbs. of the inner rind of fir ; of the tops of fir and birch each 1 lb. ; of *carduus benedictus* three handfuls ; flowers of *rosa solis* two handfuls ; of burnet, betony, marjoram, avens, penny-royal, elder-flowers, and wild thyme each one handful and a half ; seeds of cardamum, bruised, three ounces ; bay berries, bruised, one ounce. When the liquor hath fermented awhile with the herbs, let it work over the cask as little as may be. Fill it up at last, and when it is at rest, put into the cask ten new-laid eggs, the shells not

author of the *Vinetum Britannicum* concludes that temperance (relatively speaking) is the cardinal virtue of the English people."—*Harleian Miscellany*.

Prior to the year 1580 the English people were justly reputed for sobriety, when the introduction of spirits soon afterwards proved the forerunner of much social and eventful change. The properties of highly rectified alcohol are very singular and surprising. It is the lightest and most transparent fluid next to air, entirely volatile and inflammable without any sediment, grateful to the smell and taste, quickly coagulates the serum when mixed with it, contracts and hardens the solids, and preserves both from putrefaction. When taken inwardly it produces similar effects to wine, but in a higher degree, and in a more prompt and decisive manner. Distillation was an art entirely unknown to the antients, nor can the general use of spirits in Europe be traced beyond the commencement of the last century, when it was exclusively brandy distilled from wine. But with consumers the refined vinous salt of the earth had lost its savour, the more potent liquor was received approvingly, moderation was no longer inculcated, and, the stomach once accustomed to an ardent stimulant, its progress was rapid,—the vice of drunkenness increasing as spirits became relatively cheaper than wine, and supplied to depraved palates a higher degree of fervour. From 1780 to 1873 the consumption of British-made spirits gradually advanced from 873,840 to 28,908,501 gallons, morals as well as health suffering by the augmented resort to the droppings of the cracked or broken ; stop all close, and drink it when two years old. Mum, in its day, was much esteemed, and often medically prescribed as a specific in many chronic distempers, as scurvies, dropsies, and some sorts of consumption, and considered a proper and effectual restorative in several lingering diseases where there is a depravation of the blood and bowels. By the variety of its malt and the ground beans, we may conclude that mum was a very hearty and strengthening liquor. Some drank it much because it had no hops, which they fancied would despoil our English ales and beers, and usher in infections,—nay, plagues among us. One Thomas Bartholine exclaims so fiercely against hops, that he advises us to mix any thing with our drink rather than them : he recommends sage, tamaricks, tops of pine or fir instead of hops, the daily use of which in our English liquors is said to have been one cause why the stone is grown to be such a common disease in this country. As for eggs in the composition of mum, they might contribute much to prevent its going sour, their shells sweetening vinegar and destroying acids."

still ; and it is a remarkable and startling fact, that from spirituous and fermented drinks and their accessories the British treasury draws an annual revenue of upwards of twenty-two millions sterling.

The Vandal tribes of the far North, it is true, were ever considered as hard drinkers, and all the chronicles respecting early Saxon banquets that have come down to us show them as much better supplied with tankards and other drinking gear than any thing of a more useful or substantial character. To king Edgar must be awarded the merit of first interposing a restraint on the immoderate potations then common, who directed the ordinary drinking jugs to be made with pins of metal fixed at equal intervals, so that none without disgrace might take more at a single draught than from one pin to another,—a measure, however, attended with but questionable success, since it is recorded by William of Malmesbury, in depicting the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, that “excessive drinking was the common vice of all ranks of the people, in which they spent whole nights without intermission.” Tacitus, too, in describing the dissolute propensities of the ancient Germans, observes that “they proceed to business armed as well as to convivial parties, in which it is no disgrace to pass days and nights without intermission in drinking. The frequent quarrels that ensue amongst them when intoxicated seldom terminate in abusive language only, but more often in blood.”—(c. 22, 23.) Excesses of this kind, however, were not peculiar to the denizens of the North, for in fierce and coarse voracity the Celtic race were not a whit behind their German or Scandinavian compeers. Campion, in his *History of Ireland*, records that, in his time, “at meals the native Irish squeeze out the blood of raw flesh, and ask no more dressing thereto ; the rest boileth in their stomachs with *aqua vitæ* [usquebaugh], which they swill after such a surfeit by quarts and pottles.”

Debarred by the exigencies of climate from the advantage of a neighbouring vineyard, the settlers in north Germany contented themselves with a palatable and nutritious drink extracted from barley or wheat, “brought,” continues Tacitus, “to a certain resemblance of wine, their thirst for which is not quenched with

moderation." Of this liquor,—beer, or rather sweet-wort, for hops were not used till the latter part of the middle ages,—Pliny thus writes :—

"The people of the western world have also their intoxicating liquors, made from grain steeped in water. These beverages are prepared in different ways throughout Gaul and Spain. Egypt, too, has invented drinks similar in kind. Thus drunkenness is a stranger in no part of the world ; for these liquors are taken pure, and not diluted with water, as wine often is ; and yet one might have thought that the earth produced corn for nothing but to feed people. Alas ! what wondrous skill, and yet how misplaced. The sagacity of our vices has discovered a way to render even water intoxicating."—(b. xiv. c. 29.)

In speaking of the social habits of the western people Dioscorides, Tacitus, Galen, and other early writers condemn beer as prejudicial to the head, nerves, and membranous parts, as occasioning a more lasting and more exhausting intoxication than wine, and as promotive of several diseases. Defenders, however, of modern brewings urge that the use of hops, to which the antients were strangers, having a faculty of purifying the blood and removing obstructions, serves as a corrective, and frees our drink from the inconveniences anciently objected to. A doughty English champion entered the lists anew in 1647, and published *The Brewers' Plea, or a Vindication of Strong Beer and Ale*, resolutely commencing thus :—

"What ! a vineyard in England? Hath God been pleased to warm this western clime with a temporal blessing of so excellent a nature for the sustaining,—yea, for the reviving of the poor wearied labouring men ; and not only so, but also for the cheering up of the drooping spirits, and gladdening the hearts of the sorrowful and afflicted? This is no small favour which hath so long been bestowed upon us in this occidental part of the world ; but it is a wonder that, for so great a blessing, we should return so little thanks to the Almighty ; yea, many amongst us take not so much notice of it as to account it a blessing. . . . And, although England hath not naturally the wine of the vine, yet it enjoyeth the plentiful fruition thereof ; yea, in such an abundant manner, that many English prodigals, though vast estates have been left to divers of them, yet have complained more of the want of money than of the want of wine. But grant that these foreign plantations should fail us, or that we should be disappointed,—yea, almost destitute of wine by some unex-

pected means proceeding from Providence, either divine or human; or that those ships that ventured, or those commodities transported for wine should be otherwise employed or improved to the enriching of the kingdom, that wine thereby should be scarce among us, yet hath England whereat to rejoice within itself. For of hops and malt, our native commodities, may be made such strong beer, (being well boiled and hopped, and kept its full time,) as that it may serve instead of sack, which beer being well brewed, of a low pure amber colour, clear and sparkling, noblemen and the gentry may be pleased to have English sack in their cellars, and taverns also, to sell to those who are not willing or cannot conveniently lay it in their own houses; which may be a means greatly to increase and improve the tillage of England; thereby enabling the industrious farmers to pay their rents, and also to improve the revenues of the nobility and gentry."

We further read in a tract of the times, (1673,)—*The Grand Concern of England explained*.

"There is so vast a quantity of brandy, mum, coffee, tea, and Spanish chocolate every year imported into England and consumed here, that reckoning the brandy to be sold at no more than 2*d*. the quarten, the mum at 6*d*. a quart, and the coffee, tea, and chocolate at the rates they are usually sold for, yet there is expended by the king's subjects yearly in these drinks above 400,000*l*. If these liquors were prohibited, then would there be made in England with our wheat or malt such quantities of brandy, or a spirit equal to it, and of mum also, as would in all probability occasion the consumption of at least 200,000 quarters of wheat and malt every year more than now is consumed; and that would raise the price of the commodity, and thereby keep up the rent of lands."—*Harleian Miscellany*.

To diminish an acknowledged evil, if not altogether to suppress a morbid craving for strong drink, incessant warfare has long been waged by a worthy and zealous section of the community; but whilst it must be freely admitted that they have awakened public conviction to the deadly effects and gross immorality attendant on the vice of habitual tippling, a partial fallacy is perceptible in some of their notions, and they have not succeeded in entirely banishing from the social code the occasional use of alcohol as a restorative or privileged indulgence. Efforts so earnest and laudable, and in the main so beneficial, attracted the notice and sympathy of the benevolent through-

out Europe, and the voluntary researches and deductions of able scientific minds lent additional weight to the movement. Confirming the cherished theory of the advocates of total abstinence up to a certain point, their gravity was not a little disturbed on learning that the process of medical investigation, carrying them a step further, served clearly to constitute alcohol an active and serviceable element in the economy of alimentary life. Teetotallers accustom themselves to denounce it as a rank *poison*,—to preach against it unceasingly as poisonous in large doses or in small, concentrated or diluted. Nevertheless, the dictates of sound physiology compel us to recognise and consider alcohol as *food*, and, under prudent limitations, very efficient food too, for alcohol, beyond question, is as much a natural product as bread or meat. “If it be not food,” remarks a skilful analyst, “then neither is sugar food, nor gluten, nor gelatine, nor any of those manifold substances employed by man which do not enter into the composition of his tissues. That it produces deleterious and even poisonous effects when concentrated and taken in large doses, is perfectly true; but that similar effects follow when *diluted*, and taken in moderation, is manifestly erroneous, as proved by daily experience.” Concentrated alcohol has the effect, when swallowed, of depriving the mucous membrane of the stomach of all its water,—*i.e.* hardens it, and weakens its power of secretion; whereas diluted alcohol does nothing of the kind, but *increases* the secretion by the stimulus given to the circulation. It has been further put forth, as the emanation of a practical and discerning mind, that—

“Whatever substance or action in due limitation tends to improve assimilation, may in excessive amount tend to damage nutrition. In the vast majority of cases the difference between food and poison, between beneficent and malignant action, is only a difference of quantity, and thus every thing depends on the size of the dose. Prussic acid, strychnine, bella donna, aconite, nicotine, alcohol, opium, tea, coffee, and many others, are all narcotics, and taken in excessive doses will kill by paralysis of the nervous system; yet when taken in certain small quantities do not act as narcotics, but as *stimulants*. Instead of lowering nutrition, they will raise it; instead of paralyzing, they will invigorate. Common salt in excessive doses is a virulent

poison; in lesser doses it is a potential emetic; in small doses it is a gentle stimulant, and an article of food essential to the maintenance of health. If a pound of salt is a poison, is not a pinch of salt also a poison? It is enough to reply, that life cannot be well sustained without it. Wayfaring man needs fermented or alcoholic liquors to enhance his cheerfulness, as well as narcotics to soothe his sorrows,—and *he will have them*, for has not a prescient Nature provided for them in all times and in all countries throughout the world? Thus the Indian of South America will greet his guest with his native ‘chica’ (corn bruised and fermented in pumpkins); the denizen of the Friendly Islands makes wine from the ‘kava root’; the Arabs and Turks delight in a spirituous liquor derived from millet; the shepherd of the Himalayas sips his ‘murwa;’ the Russian his ‘quass.’ The palms of the African coast (*caryota urens*) yield ‘toddy’ abundantly; from the cocoa-nut palm cometh the ‘karak,’ and the ‘quarago’ from the sugar-cane. From every description of vegetable fruit some vinous liquor is made,—nay, by peculiar treatment milk even is converted into an alcoholic beverage. Yet of all the fruits of the earth the grape furnishes in generous wine the most wholesome stimulant; and it is noteworthy, that wherever the vine has found a happy home, its juice has superseded the excessive use of all other exciting liquors. Wines, indeed, are too frequently regarded as a mere article of luxury; whereas they fill well a pressing social want, and, at least, are as necessary in domestic comfort as coffee, tea, or tobacco, and constitute an important factor in the general aggregate of human industry and commerce. The peer and the parliamentary man can afford his 70s. claret and his 90s. port, in which he daily luxuriates in the recesses of his own dwelling, without stint or hindrance, to his heart’s content; but it is the humble labourer, the man exposed to the cold, the wet, the fierce heat of the melting-furnace, who has most need for the aid of stimulants. He is to be driven to the wall by the tyranny of zealots who perhaps never earned their bread by the sweat of their brow, who never knew the cravings of genuine thirst arising from manual labour, or other severe bodily exertion. But let ascetic agitators preach or declaim against the occasional use of wine and every other fermented liquor as they may, their energies will be exercised in vain. They may persevere in their anathemas, and decry them as poisons, even to the top of their bent, but man knows and feels that wine ‘gladdens the heart,’ that it warmeth the blood, stimulates his activity, increases his joy, soothes a wounded spirit; and the more man elevates himself above the brute creation, the less can he feel satisfied with overtaxing his stomach with excess of heavy food.”

The singular fallacy of concluding that whatever is true of a large quantity of ardent spirit must be equally true, though in a lesser degree, of a small quantity of diluted alcohol, lies indeed at the basis of the total abstention doctrine ; but the enlightened physiologist knows that, in effect, the difference is great and absolute,—a difference in *kind*, and not simply one of degree. On the other hand, no one will seek to palliate the danger and mischief that surround an over indulgence in the use of alcohol. Its habitual consumption, even in moderate quantities, may fairly be said to act injuriously on the system in a multitude of instances ; but it is the confirmed drinker of drams that first suffers in health. Every one knows that a drunkard eats but little : in his case, ardent spirits replace for the time the deficiency of food ; and although he may subsist upon one or other of the various forms of alcohol in common use for periods of some length, he generally terminates his sottish career by losing his appetite altogether. Terrible and insatiate is the goading influence of this ‘tricksy spirit,’ and when conjoined with ignorance and sensuality, its effects are often fearfully intense. So glaring, indeed, are the evils of intemperance, so insidious and inimical to social virtue and welfare, that the generous motives of the advocates of temperance must be respected, even when resorting to exaggeration or a want of candour in dealing with special facts. They are warring against a hideous vice, but no object can be permanently served by seeking needlessly to elude or pervert the truth, and whatever temporary effect may arise from an iteration of the notion that alcohol is poison,—a poison equally in small quantities as in large,—always and everywhere poisonous,—the cause must suffer, because every day’s experience repudiates the supposition as unreal and untruthful.

Dr. Curtis, of New York, endorses with the weight of his studious experience the belief that—

“Alcohol when consumed in ordinary amounts is wholly transformed in the system, and is capable, like good digestible food, of imparting actual strength and force to the bodily organism. When the body is over-fatigued by mental or by physical exertion, then the sluggish action

of the blood through the brain is counterbalanced and restored by the increased action of the spirit received into the system, which then, even when taken in somewhat larger doses, is used in the work of reparation rather than of intoxication."

"It is necessary to remember," remarks the late Dr. Brinton, in his excellent work *On Food*, "how often alcohol constitutes, not the single feather which distracts the sleepy savage, but the bed of down which restores the exhausted man. It may disturb a balance exquisitely adjusted; and yet, in the main, counterpoise a scale heavily laden with disadvantages. If alcohol exhilarates, imparts comfort and energy, counteracts fatigue, hunger, and unrest, then it does in effect increase the capacity for work, and affords, in so far, a direct benefit and advantage. It is excess that is fatal, and the man who feels worse on the morrow of a social dinner which has been enlivened by a moderate quantity of wine, may thank himself, or his host, for a reaction which proves some error in either the quantity or quality of his computations. From good wine in moderate quantity there is no reaction whatever. . . . That teetotalism is compatible with health, it needs no elaborate facts to establish; but if we take the customary life of those constituting the masses of our inhabitants of towns, we shall find reason to wait before we assume that this result will extend to our population at large. And in respect to experience, it is singular how few healthy teetotalers are to be met with in our ordinary inhabitants of cities. Glancing back over the many years during which this question has been forced upon the author by his professional duties, he may estimate that he has sedulously examined not less than 50,000 to 70,000 persons, including many thousands in perfect health. Wishing, and even expecting to find it otherwise, he is obliged to confess that he has hitherto met with but very few perfectly healthy middle-aged persons successfully pursuing any arduous metropolitan calling under teetotal habits. On the other hand, he has known many total abstainers, whose apparently sound constitutions have given way with unusual and frightful rapidity when attacked by casual sickness; and many more who, with the strongest resolution and inclination to abstain from alcohol, have been obliged to resume its moderate use from reasons no less valid and imperious than those which, eighteen hundred years ago, induced an inspired saint to prescribe it for a teetotal bishop."*

* St. Paul, in his epistle to Timothy. "Drink no longer water, but use a little wine for thy stomach's sake, and thine often infirmities."—1 *Tim.* v. 23.

The result of numerous experiments described by Dr. Binz further demonstrates that one important effect of alcohol upon the human frame is to diminish the temperature to the extent of from three to five degrees.

"When given in small quantities," he observed, on addressing the physiological section of the *British Association*, (1873), "the thermometer shows no great increase or decrease of the temperature of the blood; moderate doses, which need not lead to drunkenness, show a distinct decrease of about half an hour's duration or more; and strong inebriating quantities evince a still more decided lowering, lasting several hours. . . . It was difficult to discuss the question whether alcohol was a food or not, without previously settling the problem of what food really was. That it was an indirect food was proved by its diminishing the metamorphosis of tissue. To persons in ill-health it might be a food, while those in good health might not require it." On which Dr. Fothergill said, "The experiments explained how it was that elderly people, by taking a glass of alcohol before going to bed, had a better night's rest than they could have by any other means. It was an admirable antidote against the chill produced by a cold bed-room and cold bed-clothes." Dr. Brunton further remarked that "a glass of sherry was often a useful aid to digestion, as it stimulated the weakened stomach to do its work; and by the time that the effect of the wine had passed off, the body was receiving the benefit of the food."

On opening the 1873 session of the *Social Science Congress*, its president, lord Houghton, in adverting to the use and abuse of alcoholic stimulants, said,—

"A natural love for strong drinks is a characteristic of the nobler and more energetic populations of the world. It accompanies public and private enterprise, constancy of purpose, liberality of thought, and aptitude for war. It exhibits itself prominently in strong and nervous constitutions, and assumes in very many instances the character of a curative instinct. . . . The action of alcohol is believed by many eminent physiologists to arrest metamorphosis of the tissues of the body, and to lessen the actual amount of carbonic acid discharged; yet, on the other hand, immoderate use of alcohol will generate disease, and tend to premature death. It is certainly substantiated, that the craving for strong liquors is symptomatically connected with maladies of the digestive organs and the nervous system, especially with epilepsy."

Scientific research further teaches us that alcohol *replaces* a given amount of ordinary food ; that although forming none of the constituents proper of blood, it limits the combustion of those constituents, and in this way is equivalent to so much new blood. But the physiological action of alcohol taken inwardly is not yet satisfactorily explained. We know that it supplies the place of a certain quantity of *aliment*, but *how* it is assimilated we are not told. It is said to be 'burnt' in the body, and to make its exit in the form of carbonic acid and water : in what way this esoteric process is accomplished remains to be ascertained. Doubtless, some of it escapes in the breath, and by some of the secretions ; but how much is so absorbed, and what becomes of the remainder, if any, is at present a mystery. In practice, however, deficiency in one respect always seeks a proportionate compensation in another. Thus, in Temperance establishments, and in families where beer was withheld and money given in lieu, it was soon seen that the monthly consumption of bread was so materially increased, that the beer was twice paid for,—once in money, and a second time through the baker. So, on a very notable occasion,—the Peace Congress at Frankfort, the members of which were for the most part teetotallers,—an unusual inroad was daily made in certain dishes, especially farinaceous preparations, pastry, &c. The consumption was sufficiently in excess to attract the special notice of the experienced landlord, and his astonishment was not slight or agreeable on finding that his sober guests, at his expense, made up in pudding and sweets what they denied themselves in wine. This, as a natural consequence, is fully confirmed by the testimony of Dr. Thomas Inman, physician to the Liverpool Infirmary, who has given to the world the results of a diligent inquiry into the nature, action, and properties of alcoholic drinks, which he also demonstrates to be alimentary in their character. Our author, after bestowing much patient observation on the subject, denounces the prejudicial effects of excessive eating and gluttonous indulgence, and feels justified in promulgating the following conclusions as the result of his investigations :—

“ 1. Alcohol, after being taken into the system, is incorporated with

the blood, replaces a certain amount of food, and ultimately disappears, a small portion only passing away in the breath. 2. Alcohol, in the form of wine, ale, porter, &c., relieves hunger and quenches thirst simultaneously, and more readily than water taken alone. 3. When alcohol is mingled with other food, a less amount of the latter suffices for the wants of the system than if water had been used as the drink. 4. Wine, beer, &c., satisfy the appetite when taken alone, and each for the time like any solid food would do. 5. The various forms in which alcohol is taken have as marked and specific effects as have animal and vegetable articles of diet. 6. Alcohol when freely imbibed did not leave the system altogether unchanged. If it actually passed out of the lungs in vapour as largely as was sometimes assumed, a party of spirit-drinkers would make the atmosphere of a close room explosive, which has never occurred. 7. Individuals are known to have subsisted wholly upon one or other of the various forms of alcohol in common use for periods of considerable length; and as it would be illogical to conclude that they must have lived on air without food, or on flies, like chameleons, the conclusion is irresistible. What that conclusion is, may be left for every thinking man to decide."

"For purposes of social exhilaration," notes Dr. R. Druitt, in his able treatise on vinous beverages, "amongst classes who are not outdoor labourers, beer is too coarse. Man, as a social animal, requires something which he can sip as he sits and talks, and which pleases his palate whilst it gives some aliment to the stomach, and stimulates the flow of genial thoughts to the brain. No one who has made the experiment will fail to regard spirits as medicines for the sick and aged, and not as beverages for the healthy. . . . Civilized man must drink, will drink, and ought to drink,—but it should be *wine*."

An inquiry into the influence of wine on national or individual character opens a wide and interesting field of disquisition; but the absence of accurate data, and the difficulty of separating and distinguishing them from various attendant or special circumstances, present a formidable obstacle to the deduction of any consistent or satisfactory theory on the subject. Recent statistics inform us that the quantity of wine drunk in Paris, with a population of 1,851,792 citizens, exceeded 85,849,304 gallons, equal to 40½ gallons per head; whereas the quantity consumed in the United Kingdom during the same period, with a population of 31,628,338 persons, was but 16,878,169 gals., only a little over

half a-gallon per head, or less than one-fifth of the quantity required for the inhabitants of Paris alone. In the seven years of 1857 to 1863 the annual average of wine imported into England from Spain was 220,978 hectolitres; from Portugal, 136,000; Germany, 83,077; France, 74,400. Many persons may feel surprised that we were then in the habit of taking more wine from Germany than from France. Life, it may be said, is seldom cheerful enough to be enjoyed without some mitigating boon. This at least would seem a prevailing notion, thoroughly cosmopolitan, which drew the attention of mankind to the most opposite materials wherewith to animate the imaginative faculty, and to encircle dull prosaic reality with the charmed mantle of poetic fancy. Whether cocoa, maté, coffee, tea, tobacco, opium, betel, kat, and hashish (the hemp-seed of the orientals), or beer, brandy, koomiss (a Tartar beverage prepared from milk), rum, whisky, and wine, be regarded in the one case as vegetable narcotics, and prized in the other as pure alcohol, the great magician of life, everywhere man remained the same; everywhere there was a manifest and ardent desire to exalt the mind, and to transfer it from the depressing monotony of unvaried labour to the fanciful creations of an ever active brain. Nor have nations ever become weary of this magical play, or their most gifted poets shy in adorning it with all the charms of inspired ideality. Even the stolid follower of Islam knows how to evade the commands of the prophet, by ostensibly drinking his palm-wine in place of the juice of the grape. Yet it is wonderful how Nature has taken pains, in manifold ways, to meet this great desire of the human race. Sugar is the secret element from which flow all these countless sources of enjoyment, and it is sugar which it deposits in every vegetable body, either as such, or in the form of starch, which by chemical transformation is again converted into glucose and alcohol. There is scarcely another element of organic nature so widely spread in this way, aided by its congener starch. But the marvel does not stop here. When the latter does not separately accumulate in the vegetable body, nature dissolves it by means of the water which the roots of the plant convey to its body, so that it may be there speedily changed,—first into gum,

then into sugar. The saccharine juice is now ready ; it awaits the discerning activity of the vintner, who will disengage it from its cellular tissues, and transmute it one degree higher into pure alcohol for the service of man ; and but few reasonable persons will be disposed to doubt that, in a northern climate especially, a moderate quantity of pure wine acts beneficially on the constitution. In all ages of the world, in sacred as well as profane history, it is ever the abuse, and not the fair use of wine that has been denounced. It is sad to reflect how often undue indulgence has converted what is naturally generous and beneficent into an evil of no ordinary magnitude : so difficult is it to curb or prescribe the limit of rational enjoyment in the best of things. In our own country the practice of drinking largely has much decreased of late years among the better classes, and it is gratifying to witness the gradual progress of society towards more refined and temperate habits. A generation has hardly passed away since it was no uncommon thing for men of high intellectual acquirements, and of irreproachable character in every other respect, to protract the nightly feast till, not only their cares, but their senses were completely drowned in wine. At present such irrational excess would operate as an effectual barrier to all polite society. Some authors, it is true, have not hesitated to affirm that the character of nations is usually analogous to the beverages they produce ; and it must be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of wine-countries are much less prone to intemperance than others, for whom the attraction of vinous liquors seems to increase in proportion as they recede from the climates that produce them. Although, when taken without restraint, wine can only be considered as “a delightful poison,” as the Persians have appropriately termed it, yet, like other poisons, when used with moderation and discretion, it is capable of producing the most beneficial effects.

“Temperately enjoyed,” writes an eminent authority, “it acts as a cordial and stimulant,—quickenng the action of the heart, diffusing an agreeable warmth over the body, promoting the different secretions, communicating a sense of increased muscular force, exalng tthe nervous energy, and banishing all unpleasant feelings from the mind. In general,

then, we may conclude that the good effects of wine as an article of diet are referrible to its stimulating operation on the nervous and muscular coats of the stomach, by which means that organ is incited to greater action, and the flow of gastric juice healthily promoted. This tendency will, of course, vary according to the proportion of the spirituous and aromatic constituents, and the quantities of the acids and neutral salts by which their action, within certain limits, may be controlled or modified."

The learned author of *The Juice of the Grape ; or, Wine preferable to Water*, temp. 1724, in his eagerness to bear witness to the innate virtues of his subject, thinks he has found the true elixir of life :—

"Wine," he maintains, "is no temporary or imaginary cordial whose effects will soon vanish, but one that is true, real, and permanent ; general, easy, and powerful ; affording matter for a fresh supply of blood and spirits, at the same time that it solicits the exercise and expense of them. . . . The vine, though an excellent plant, is generally overlooked both by botanists and physicians ; and its juice, one of the noblest medicines in nature, seldom commended except in drunken catches or over a bottle. . . . Wine drunk in moderate quantities, or proportionably to the respective constitutions of men in health, has a power to give sudden refreshment, to warm the stomach, gently stimulate its fibres, promote digestion, raise the pulse, rarify the blood, add to its velocity, open obstructions, forward excretions, greatly promote insensible perspiration, increase the natural strength, and enlarge the faculties both of body and mind. But when used too freely, it carries all these effects to excess, though it soon ends in a perfect recovery and a healthful state. For this fluid having no foulness, nothing to block up or preclude its own passage, but being thin, pure, and subtle, offending merely by its quantity, and not by any noxious quality, it presently goes off in sleep by its proper outlets, and principally by the glands of the skin. Therefore the circulating glass never fails at once to cheer the heart, enliven the countenance, dispel gloom and melancholy, fear and sadness, brighten conversation, and heighten pleasure. Hence also appears the reason why men of a sound constitution and vitals untainted receive no prejudice from any excess in this exhilarating fluid for a long series of years, but always appear florid and gay, vigorous and lusty. 'Tis therefore very clear that wine, prudently used, has naturally a strong and direct tendency to prolong life and prevent diseases, especially since it is so particularly levelled to encourage and promote insensible perspira-

tion,—an obstruction wherein we are assured is the primary cause of most disorders in the animal frame. . . . I venture, then, to affirm with Galen, that wine is in most cases infinitely preferable to water as a medicine,—nay, that properly applied, 'tis one of the best medicines we are possessed of. Common water is a raw, crude, tasteless, scentless fluid, and manifests no virtues to any of our senses ; but wine is a well-concocted and purified juice, grateful to the smell and charming to the taste. The former is slow and weak in its operation, and but languid in its effects ; the latter works powerfully, and presently alters the face of things, adding momentum to the moving engine, and supplying matter to begin, continue, and renew the motion. It is difficult, indeed, to understand how any one could seriously suppose that a substance which has been universally appreciated by mankind, which has the sanction of the customs of Judaism and Christianity, and of which the great majority of civilized nations partake with thankfulness to the Divine Giver of all good, can be by any possibility an irredeemable curse ; and it would, indeed, be a unique exception in the economy of nature if a production in such general acceptance from the earliest times were not designed for our gratification and use."

"I marvel," shrewdly remarks Dr. Richard Shorte, who in 1656 published a little volume entitled *Of drinking Water*, "that some new light of this doting age do not bring upon the stage the eating of acorns as well as drinking of water ; for in the infancy of the world men and beasts both ate acorns, and both drank water. But if men did eat acorns in the infancy of the world, why may they not eat them again in the old age of it? But they that forsake wheat, rye, and barley for acorns, and leave wine, ale, and beer for water, I think, if they had a candle in their sconce, they might, peradventure, see if they could find the way to Gotham."

Hear another and more modern commentator on the proper use and estimation of vinous liquors :—*

"That 'wine makes glad the heart of man,' not even the rules of modern exegesis will enable us to deny. And that, in quantities equally moderate as those to which this proportion must be virtually restricted, it so far substitutes and replaces food as to permit life and health to subsist for an apparently indefinite period on a food less rich or copious than would otherwise be requisite, is scarcely more questionable. . . . Red and white wine, such as kind Providence offers to the industry of civilized man, is found everywhere throughout a wide dis-

* Dr. William Brinton *On Food and its Digestion*.

trict, which ranges from the Atlantic on the west to Palestine on the east; not, perhaps, the costly products of extraordinary soil and high culture, but the sound, fresh, small wines grown along a line of latitude extending from Spain to Hungary, and which bid fair to resume the ground they have lost during the last century in England. . . . The arguments in defence of a system which had for many years rendered wine unknown to the mass of Englishmen would scarcely deserve to be raked up from the fitting obscurity they have now found, were it not that they strikingly illustrate that want of acquaintance with the facts and laws of human life which renders some of our most successful political controversialists perfectly unfit to legislate for the physical welfare of their fellow-citizens. To say that wine was an inferior or unwholesome drink in this climate; that the English workman would never drink wine; that the foreign peasant would never grow it for him; that wine was a luxury, and therefore to be taxed to the verge of prohibition:—such were the assertions which, for years, those who should have been the instructors of the public substituted for more legitimate arguments in defence of our strange laws against one of the first necessities of civilized existence. Hardy predictions deserve no contradiction, until those who make them can show some claims to be considered prophets. But how men could call wine a luxury only, and appraise it on sophistical grounds which, carried to their logical conclusions, would entitle us to regard potatoes, water, and a single fig-leaf as the only necessities of human life, it is really difficult to understand. Certainly, the experience which teaches some persons that they can dispense with such aids to nutrition, or the still more doubtful considerations which league others in hostility against all alcoholic drinks, no way countervail either the general usefulness of wine, or its special value as a less poisonous and brutalizing agent than the ardent spirits which, in most countries of Europe, replace its insufficient consumption. It is, perhaps, the natural but multifarious admixture of ingredients in wine which makes this liquid so much less poisonous, and more medicinal, than dilute alcohol,—frequently amounting to a full dose in the quantity of wine often consumed daily by those who habitually drink it. . . . The æthers and the tannic acid, as well as the tartaric acid and the tartrates of wine, are also doubtless of importance, and seem to confer upon it that rich and multifarious composition, by which this great medicine so far transcends all that we sometimes attempt in our pharmaceutical combinations of many drugs, and securing that proper combination of stimulant, tonic, and alterative effects distinctive of the action of wine.”—“I call the pleasant liquor of Bacchus,” says Redi, “

pharmaceutical antidote ; that is to say, an inert poison, good against the troubles and wear and tear of life."

We find it further noted as " a remarkable and well-ascertained fact, that the alcohol in wine combined in the *natural way*, when drunk in that state, is not productive of those complaints of the liver—gout, indigestion, and other diseases—which arise from drinking the brandied wines of Portugal, in which the *spirit is adventitious*. The union of the alcohol, when mingled with the other ingredients of the wine by artificial means, is never perfect, and is beyond calculation more pernicious than the strongest natural product." * If the growing taste for natural as contradistinguished from unwholesome fortified wine be only generally encouraged and maintained, a few years will see a considerable defection from the pernicious practice of adding spirits to any wine under the false pretence of an absolute necessity for its due preservation under the exigencies of distant transit, either by land or water. The fortified wines of any country, it should be remembered, are never by any chance consumed by the natives at the seat of their production.

In the habitual use of strong brandied wines the intemperate man meets his own reward ; and it is a singular fact, that in proportion as tipplers abound in any nation, the liquors drunk there become more adulterated and strengthened with substances foreign to them. The healthy stomach relishes plain food ; the attenuated one must be pampered with savoury or spiced dishes. Strong drink is then most coveted, for pure wine is chill to the arid and heated stomach. If such wine be drunk at all, it must be fortified with ardent spirit, and it can be no marvel that, to persons inured to the burning product of the still, the generous soul-enlivening juice of the grape in its pure state should seem cold and insipid as spring water. This enlightened exposition, shared by many eminent physiologists, is well sustained by the experience of Dr. M'Cullagh, who, in recording the results of his own lengthened practice, says,—

" Whilst it is well known that diseases of the liver are the most common as well as the most formidable of those produced by the use of

* *Memoranda of a Tour in Central France*, by J. H. Holdsworth, M.D.

ardent spirits, it is equally certain that no such disorders follow even the intemperate use of pure wine, however long indulged in." These remarks apply in a proportionate degree to Port, Sherry, and Madeira, for they are strong wines, containing not only the natural alcohol produced by fermentation, but a considerable addition in the shape of crude brandy to *fortify* the wine against the disturbing influences of a sea-voyage. In order to ameliorate the effect on the palate of the brandy so infused, a suitable quantity of sugar or must is added. Thus these wines are empirically rendered both sweet and strong, greatly to their injury as a beverage, since the dissolved sugar exists in a condition that makes it peculiarly liable to act prejudicially on the stomach and blood.

Dr. Gardner, of the New York Medical College, while commenting, in harmony with other eminent professional compeers, on this subject, writes,—

"Stimulants to the kidneys—as gin and whisky—should be moderately taken ; their excessive use produces diabetes, Bright's disease, and the like ; whilst brandy acts on the liver, causing congestions, hardenings, and modifications. New and cheap spirits should be especially avoided. They are filled with fusel oil, which inflames the stomach and the organs through which it escapes. Hence old spirits only should, where possible, be drunk. Liqueurs, being simply one-fourth proof spirit saturated with a rich-flavoured syrup, are very pernicious. Wine, on the other hand, is exhilarating and animating ; love, glory, fame, great deeds, and lofty aims are its fruit. If we could afford to drink a bottle of *really pure wine* among the family at a meal, *dyspepsia would vanish*. When dry and well-matured unsophisticated wines are within our pecuniary reach, humanity will advance, for then every one will practically sit under his own vine and his own fig-tree, and life be regarded with different eyes than heretofore."

We are further told by the president of the Massachusetts Board of Health, Dr. Bowditch, of Boston, the Maine liquor-law notwithstanding, that—

"Alcohol is not by any means the only stimulant that brings disease and misery to human beings, although, perhaps, it is a stronger inducement to crime than some others. Were there, therefore, a strict rule that no articles stimulating to the nervous system should be used by the present party of devotees to abstinence, the dogma would split that party into innumerable fragments. It would probably be divided into

various small cliques, each excluded for its intemperate use of some favourite stimulus,—tobacco, opium, coffee, or tea, &c. Scarcely a week passes that I am not called on to ‘prohibit,’ in a particular case, all use of one or other of these articles. There are thousands of what could be happy lives were it not for the ‘demon of intemperance’ in the shape of one or more of these.”

In addition to these eminently practical authorities, a further witness may yet be cited in the person of the rev. J. Bleasdale, D.D., who, in his book *On Colonial Wines*, printed in Melbourne, thus records his settled convictions:—

“The experience of all warm countries wherein wine is the universal beverage leaves no doubt that where the vine flourishes in luxuriance, there our beneficent Creator intended that His children should drink of its produce, and be glad. I need not recur to scenes of drunkenness with which, but a few years back, we were all only too much familiarized here in Victoria. With the upheaval of colonial society in 1852, consequent on the discoveries of gold and the influx of population, the infant local wine interest was nearly destroyed. Beer, ardent spirits, and hot wines held their empire over the people absolutely. The enormous price obtainable for fruit of all kinds, and the comparative cheapness and abundance of all imported liquors, rendered it folly to think of converting grapes into wine in Victoria. Drunkenness, disorder, and riot reigned supreme and uncontrollable. The wretched effects of such degrading vices are forced upon the clergyman and the medical officer more than upon all others, and the hospital returns show the fearful amount of disease, insanity, and death, the prominent and rapid consequences of habitual spirit-drinking in a warm dry climate like this. If a man, then, believed in the existence of a fundamental remedy, cheap, easy of application, wholesome, and safe, would he not be to blame if he did not try to apply it? I believe in the remedy myself,—I have more than a theoretical belief in it, and I am no quack. I hate quackery.

“It may be asked elsewhere, perhaps, why I, a clergyman, should have taken so much trouble and interest in wine-making and colonial vine-culture, or commend the produce as a panacea for the evils referred to. One or two reasons may be briefly stated. Certainly, it is part of my duty to inculcate morality, to discourage and put down drunkenness to the best of my ability, and to strike a blow if possible at the very root of the evil. Experience has long ago convinced me, that pledges and resolutions to abstain from ardent spirits are but ‘poor safeguards

of unstable virtue ;' and that to effect a lasting cure the natural instincts must not be violently assaulted with resolves, but steadily and gently turned towards sources of reasonable and healthy gratification, while the danger of excess is effectually removed. Depend upon it, that once fairly inducted, the taste for the lighter unsophisticated wines is a growing one, converts the people first from ardent spirits, and the palate, if not utterly vitiated, will very quickly seek out the purest natural wine that can be obtained.

"I remember, in my youth, that I spent full seven years in and near the great capital of Portugal in times of turmoil and almost disorganization of society, consequent on the civil wars, when the utmost excitement prevailed, and the bad passions of men for a season broke loose ; yet in that city, of three times the population of Melbourne, and where wine was not more than twopence the quart bottle, and strong brandy fivepence or sixpence the imperial pint, I never saw a Portuguese drunk. The occasional spectacle of a Dutch or British sailor drunk in the gutter, and dealing largely in loyalty to his own country, and eternal execration of all others, used to afford an hour's cheap amusement to a whole street.* Among themselves drunkenness and *delirium tremens*, and our forms of liver disease, were wholly unknown.

"In the interests, then, of health and morality, and cheerful and happy homes, may I be pardoned for recording the wish that I may live to see the time when even the humblest labourer, at the close of his hot day's toil, will stroll into our fine parks and public gardens, and

* Striking and veritable as this statement undoubtedly appears to be, it is curious to note that our own earlier literature furnishes a parallel instance of a similar character. De Foe, in his *Memoirs of Captain Carleton*, after describing the state of Barcelona soon after the siege and capture of that stronghold by the earl of Peterborough, concludes his fourth chapter with the following anecdote :—"Another remarkable accident, but of a much more moral nature, I must, in justice to the temperance of that, in this respect, truly inimitable people, here recite. I was one day walking in one of the most populous streets of that city, when I found an uncommon concourse of people of all sorts got together ; and imagining so great a crowd could not be assembled on a small occasion, I prest in among the rest, and after a good deal of struggling and difficulty, reached into the ring and centre of that mixed multitude. But how did I blush, with what confusion did I appear, when I found one of my own countrymen, a drunken grenadier, the attractive loadstone of all the high and low mob, and the butt of all their merriment ! It will be easily imagined to be a thing not a little surprising to one of our country, to find a drunken man should be such a wonderful sight. However, the witty sarcasms that were then, by high and low, thrown upon that senseless creature, and—as I interpreted matters—me in him, were so pungent, that if I did not curse my curiosity, I thought it best to withdraw myself as fast as my legs could carry me away."

there, with his happy family around him, enjoy his hour of relaxation, and drink his bottle of wholesome wine at the cost of a few pence, without either the reproach of extravagance or the danger of intoxication. In fact, I hope and wish to see the Victorians a healthy, sober, jolly, wine-drinking population."

To most persons of great mental activity there is commonly a tendency to an irritable condition of the nervous system, in which the smallest and most commonplace matter magnifies itself into undue importance, becomes a worry and a care, and genuine repose and tranquillity are banished by an access of perturbations of feeling almost beyond the capacity of the sufferer to restrain. Adam Clarke testifies, with many other learned and pious writers, that "wine in moderate quantity has a wondrous tendency to revive and invigorate the human being. Ardent spirits exhilarate, but they exhaust the strength, and every dose leaves man the worse. Unadulterated wine, on the contrary, exhilarates and invigorates; it makes him cheerful, and provides for the continuance of that cheerfulness by strengthening the muscles and bracing the nerves. This is its use. Those who continue drinking till wine inflames them, abuse this mercy of God."—"The proverbs of all tongues," remarks Dr. Chambers, "show how work purely mental exhausts the body; how, for instance, not only the painful emotions, care, sorrow, anxiety, but the nobler impulses,—the afflatus of the poet, the ambition of the patriot, the fixed attention of the scholar, the abstraction of the lover, fret to dust their tenement of clay." Now it is consoling to reflect that there exists a power capable of relieving this morbid condition, and of keeping in check the tendency to all such disturbing sensations. Universal experience teaches us that wine, tea, tobacco, and alcohol, used moderately, alike exert a potent *calmative* influence on these oppressive irritabilities,—an influence which seems precisely in harmony with the teachings of science in regard to their physiological action; and it rests with each individual to choose which is most suitable to himself, provided that he has self-command enough to keep within the bounds which sound judgment prescribes. "Wine, considered within these limits," observes Dr. Sandford, in his *Remarks on*

the Medicinal effects of Wine and Spirits, "is undoubtedly one of those real blessings with which a kind Providence has favoured us ; and its true uses and effects have been long known and considered by medical writers of very high eminence and authority. The power of 'making glad the heart of man' amid the trials and vicissitudes of life, must therefore, by every person of discernment and observation, be allowed to have been justly ascribed to it by David, and—ever within the limits of prudence here suggested—I would urge its use to be strictly confined."

An apt illustration of these practical views is furnished in the longevity of Cardinal de Solis, archbishop of Seville, who attained the venerable age of 110 years : he died in 1785, with every faculty, except his hearing, unimpaired. He attributed his green old age and length of days to a sober, studious life, regular exercise, and a good conscience, as well, nevertheless, as to a pint of the best Xeres at each meal, except in very cold weather, when he allowed himself a third more. We may read, furthermore, and observe with profit, the sage monition of a good and pious curé of the olden time, who thus in gentle converse addressed one of his flock :—

" Good wine, in truth, will never hurt : it keeps
The heart and stomach warm ;—that is, of course,
Unless 'tis taken in excess ; but then
All things are bad if taken in excess.
I drink my wine more now than once I did,
For as old age comes on I feel it more :
Yet in all things my ways are temperate."





SECTION VI.

“ Sweet is the vintage when the showering grapes
In Bacchanal profusion roll to earth,
Purple and gushing.”—*Lord Byron.*

Of the Wines of Portugal.

PORTUGAL has been described as possessing a climate “so salubrious and weather so mild, an atmosphere so buoyant, owing to the gentle breezes from the sea and the pure air on shore, and a people so long-lived, so healthy, and so robust, that sickness is hardly known, and many live to the age of ninety years or more.” Even the exposed and mountainous districts are fertile, and produce nearly every kind of delicious fruit in perfection ; also oil, wine, and honey in profusion. “Not even the pears of Calabria,” says one of her encomiastic sons, “the plums of Damascus, the figs of Campania, the grapes of Caieta, the apples of Maucianus, the pomegranates of Phœnicia, the peaches of Persia, or the melons of Hostia, excel in flavour and size the orchard-fruits of the land in which Pomona, adored by the antients, has fixed her abode.” But although Nature may have thus prodigally showered such inestimable bounties on this favoured clime, the hand of man has done little to utilize or perpetuate them. Unfortunately Portugal, once so renowned, is now no longer the Lusitania of yore ; and her untilled plains, the poverty and squalor of the people, the apathy of proprietors and rulers, bear silent witness to the choice of a heedless and retrogressive course. Her once noble halls and palaces, her convents and wealthy monasteries, savour but of one general loneliness and decay ; whilst the almost entire absence of convenient roads, and every ordinary facility for local interchange, goes far to neutralize all her other special benefits,

Portugal, as well from its geographical position, its benignant climate, and geological conformation, as from other propitious circumstances, is admirably adapted for a successful cultivation of the vine. Her wines are naturally alcoholic and fragrant, and not without a certain touch of fruity sweetness. They improve with time, and maintain their vigour to a considerable age. These inherent advantages, however, for many generations have been sadly marred by the indolence and ignorance of the vintagers, who participated too largely in the prevalent stand-still spirit of native apathy; for both tillage and produce would have been vastly augmented, and still more improved, if the farmers, obeying certain fixed and well-known laws, had studied the mode of culture most suitable for the soil and the peculiar requirements of the plant, and adopted a skilful method of fabricating the wine. In many provinces of Portugal the vine is planted indiscriminately on hill and plain, and allowed to shoot up to a considerable height. No less than sixty-seven varieties of vine are reckoned as grown in that kingdom, but a baneful practice prevails of mingling the fruit without distinction of colour or quality, which is fatal alike to personal emulation, and any advance towards perfection of produce. "Everywhere throughout the country," says a native author, "a blind and uncertain practice is followed: everybody is the slave of custom: there is no fixed principle to direct or guide their operations." *Custom* is a ready answer for every thing, and bad wine in many districts is made from good grapes without thought or reflection, or leaving any possibility of convincing the vintagers that much better liquor might be produced with far less trouble. The farmers do as did their forefathers before them, disdaining the counsels of scientific men, censuring those who recommend timely innovations, and more especially rejecting the suggestions of such as were most likely to be beneficial to them. In the immediate vicinity of Lisbon, however, and along the course of the Douro, the culture of the plant is better understood, and more care and method are bestowed on the vintages. The vines here are in general kept low, and trained on poles; at Beira the high growth prevails, and there, as else-

where in Portugal, they invariably mingle brandy (*i.e.* native spirit) with the wines as an admitted necessity for their preservation.

"Port" wine is a production of the province of Traz-os-Montes (*behind the mountains*), on the north bank of the Douro. The scenery of this wine-country is far from picturesque. The landscape simply consists of a series of high hills, covered with vines from base to summit, everywhere treeless, except for some stray elder clumps and a few olives here and there ; but olive-trees, though sad of countenance, are substantial friends of man, and do not offer him eye-service only. The vineyards nearest the Douro river and its affluents produce the most esteemed wine, the quality diminishing proportionately as they reach to higher altitudes of the receding mountains. The ground on the hills is a loose granite, with a thin covering of soil, and cut into gigantic flights of steps, where the vines grow in bushes three or four feet high, and about a yard apart. The grapes vary much from a tart piquancy to sugary sweetness, nor can uniformity in any given species be ensured when grown in vineyards differing in soil and aspect.

In Portugal the vintage commonly begins in September or early in October, and causes a veritable migration of village tribes. Many thousands flock from Galicia to the Douro to secure the welcome harvest, and the first care of the wine-farmer, when the time approaches, is to engage men and women enough for the vintage work. The labourers employed are almost savages, wild in their tempers, dirty in their persons, and every male of them, man or boy, goes armed, after the common custom, with an ugly gun slung to his back. The day's food of these poor people is of small moment. They think themselves well off if they can get a couple of dried sardines for dinner, as a relish to their piece of Indian-corn bread. The duty of the women in the vineyard is to cut the bunches into large baskets, which the men carry on their shoulders to the press. A great deal of singing accompanies and lightens the toil, and all seem to work very contentedly, in spite of the oppressive heat. When approaching darkness terminates the labour of the day, the peasants assemble outside the farm-house, a guitar is pro-

duced, and dancing and merriment are well sustained for some hours without any semblance of fatigue.

When all the grapes are in the wine-press, the first thing to be done is to turn them well over with wooden rakes, in order to separate them from the stalks. Then all the men tuck up their trousers and jump in. The scene inside soon becomes very animated. Twenty or thirty dirty brown-faced and black-bearded tatterdemalions, up to their knees in the purple juice, sing, quarrel, dance, and scream, half mad with excitement, for to them it is the crowning event of the year. Every now and then a cry is raised for *aguardiente*, which the farmer furnishes. It is the pure white spirit as it came from the still, and very strong. As its influence begins to be felt the singing gets louder, the dancing, which within the press is the requisite work, 'grows fast and furious,' and a general fight often ensues, in which the long guns sometimes play a dangerous part. By the aid of relays, and dripping with perspiration, the dance is vigorously kept up for two days, or until the husks become colourless,—a scene sufficiently primeval and picturesque, yet irrepressibly weighted with an aspect more repulsive than attractive. "Yet stay your censure," pleads the wily proprietor; "fermentation is the cure for this muddling process, which will purge the must of all impurity, animal or vegetable." And distasteful as the means here adopted must appear to a casual observer, it is really of the highest importance to the wine that is to be, for only in this rude fashion can be avoided the crushing of the kernel-like pips, and mingling their astringent constituents with the juice, which no known machinery can entirely prevent, although in some sections of the Rhine, and in other countries of advanced viticulture, for this purpose the human foot is no longer put under contribution. The heaped-up mass is now left in the receptacle for three or four days till active fermentation sets in, when it is allowed to run off through pipes into large wooden tonels which stand beneath, where, after a time, fermentation is checked by the addition of brandy to preserve the young wine, as on account of the high temperature engendered, its developement would continue until it passed

to the acescent state. To this danger every wine-producing country is exposed when the amount of alcohol naturally evolved in fermentation is insufficient for the preservation of the vinous extract.

When the fermentation in the vat is complete, the product would not suit the English conventional palate, being thin, and tart and astringent. It has, therefore, to be sweetened and fortified. For sweetening, *geropiga* is employed. This latter is made by the addition of brandy to a portion of fresh must, which being thus prevented from fermenting, retains all the sugar contained in the grape. Brandy, or other less worthy spirit, is further used to strengthen the wine. Frequently, too, there is deficiency of colour, and this defect is cured by putting dried elderberries, tied in a sack, into a tub about half full of wine. Into this tub a man is placed, who by treading on the sack quickly expresses the colour from the berries, and the darkened liquor is added to the rest. This practice is common throughout the vine districts, and favourable spots are set apart for plantations of elder-bushes solely to supply this demand for the fruit. When the wine has been sufficiently stored, it is racked from the tonel into pipes, carried down by ox-carts to the river Douro, fastened to a barge, and floated to Oporto. There it is warehoused till the time comes for shipping it to England, whither by far the greater part of the exports is sent. The superior quality alone can be legally consigned to any part of Europe. Official examiners appointed by the government go round ostensibly to test the wine, and set their brand on the pipes they approve. Without their mark no cask is allowed to pass the custom-house.

There can be no question that Portugal abounds in wines of high natural merit, which, with more skilful treatment, might be rendered suitable for the British market. The vine has long been extensively cultivated in every province, but it is from the plantations of the Cima do Douro alone that its wines have derived their high celebrity in England. This fertile district, better known as the Alto or Upper Douro, was formerly under the sole jurisdiction of a chartered company, invested with

power to determine the qualities and fix the prices for the whole vintage. The produce was usually divided into two principal classes ; viz., Factory wines, and a branch or secondary kind called *ramo*, the purchase and sale of which was for a long time confined to the privileged company. Although the general aspect of the country is bleak and unattractive, it presents a succession of hills that afford the choicest exposures, and such loose and friable soils as have been shown to be most suitable to the growth of the vine,—the powerful sun of the south rendering a failure of the crop a rare occurrence. The harvest, consequently, is usually luxuriant, the grape rich and abundant ; but soil, climate, and fertility were alike lost upon the sloth, ignorance, and superstition through successive generations of a hard-faring and untractable people. Wine in large quantities was made in a very defective manner, but it satisfied the wants of the home consumer, and this being the main object of the proprietor, he became careless of improvement. Produce of an unnecessarily inferior character was the inevitable result, and the wines of Oporto seemed destined long to remain unnoticed.

But external events were effecting for Portugal what Portugal was unwilling or incapable of doing for itself. A jealous rivalry and national animosity had long dominated the councils of England and France, which gradually increasing in asperity, they began to oppress each other's industry by fiscal regulations and prohibitions that finally led to open hostilities. The sympathy and support persistently accorded to the Stuart family by the court of Versailles, and the intrigues of Louis XIV. in Spain, further contributed to induce the British government to cultivate a closer amity with Portugal, and one important political result was the Methuen commercial treaty of 1703. By the provisions of this celebrated compact the Portugal wines, in return for a preference granted on the import of our woollens, were to be admitted for home consumption at a customs duty one-third less than that assessed on the vintage of any other country. The impolicy of such a measure will not now be denied. Its progressive tendency was, to check the introduction of cheaper if not better wines ; to promote the importation of

supplies under the name of Port from places other than Oporto ; to stimulate the practice of admixture and adulteration both at home and abroad ; and finally to erect for itself a giant monopoly, fraught with baleful and suicidal results, prejudicial alike to quality, purity, and price,—the exports of later years, by their inferior character, serving to throw additional discredit upon all shipments bearing the name of Port. The natural growths of the country are excellent, but the treatment is old-fashioned, unskilful, and out of date ; yet for many years to come the “full-bodied, deeply coloured, heavy wine,” will doubtless continue to be attractive to the English palate, notwithstanding the disfavour into which Port wine has fallen amongst the higher classes of her Majesty’s subjects. “But,” notes the author of a recent *Tour in Portugal*, “there is also a tawny, lighter, clean-tasted nectar extensively consumed by the English residents in Oporto, and by the Portuguese themselves, which has far higher and more delicate qualities ; and if any one labours under the prevailing inability to drink Port wine as now imported, he cannot do better than make an acquaintance with the hospitable merchants of Oporto, and taste the wine on the spot where it is grown.”

Since this notable diplomatic arrangement, the political relations of England and Portugal have rendered us extremely familiar with the wines of that country, and obtained for them a degree of favour and importance which, under other circumstances, they might not have so easily acquired. Prior to the year 1679, the wines of French origin constituted three-fifths of the entire consumption of this country, the imports extending at times to 40,000 pipes per annum. In 1675 there came to England 14,990 pipes of French wines to 40 of those of Portugal ; and in the year following no less than 19,290 French to 166 Portuguese. Soon afterwards, the growths of France were altogether prohibited, and in seven years,—from 1679 to 1685,—only eight pipes were imported, whilst 13,760 pipes of Portuguese came in. From 1686 to 1695 the interdict on France was removed, when the average annual imports again expanded to 26,892 pipes,—Portuguese wines not reaching to 900 pipes. But

the national taste in wine soon began to be influenced by price, and fluctuated as the growth available was dear or cheap. From this remarkable era these large French consignments began rapidly to decline: in 1701 they fell to 4,000 pipes, and at the end of the first seven years from the Methuen compact, the average annual supply was 330 pipes only. As few persons in those days kept much store of wine in private cellars, the chief consumption being in taverns, where it was served from the cask, the whole quantity in the country at any one time was not very considerable, and the stock soon became exhausted. As the growths of the Bordelais, however, still continued much in demand, an appropriate substitute for them became a pressing necessity, when the void was filled up by the red wine of Portugal, and the commencement of the Oporto trade dates from about this period. But national taste and habits were not overcome without a hearty struggle, and the novel imports were received at first with undisguised scorn and reluctance. This is illustrated in a smart tavern dialogue, as given in *A Farewel to Wine*; by a *quondam Friend of the Bottle*, temp. 1693.

"Some Claret, boy!"

"Indeed, sir, we have none.

Claret, sir? Lord! there's not a drop in town.

But we've the best Red-Port."

"What's that you call

Red-Port?"

"A wine, sir, as comes from Portugal.

I'll fetch a pint, sir."

"Do make haste, you slave!—

In things of fence what mighty faith some have,

To give their health up to a vintner's boy,

Who with one dash, perhaps, can it destroy.

And when the threat'ning gout or fever comes,

To quack in velvet coat,

Who all his learning has by rote,

To purchase health again give lib'ral sums."

"Pray taste your wine, sir."

"Sir, by your good favour,

I'll view it first, and nose its flavour. * * *

Is this the wine you so commend?

Nay, look upon't, my clever friend.

It looks almost as brown and yellow
 As is the face of warlike fellow,
 Who has for seven campaigns in Flanders lain.—
 Observe—observe it once again ;
 See how ten thousand atoms dance about the glass
 Of eggs, and lime, and isinglass !
 Mark how it smells ! Methinks a real pain
 Is by its odour thrown upon my brain.
 I've tasted it : 'tis spiritless and flat,
 And has so many different tastes,
 As can be found in compound pastes,
 In lumber pye, or soporif'rous Mithridate.”

“ Sir, if you please, I'll a fresh hogshead pierce.”

“ Pierce your own head, you dog ! which now contains
 Maggots and lies instead of brains.
 What other wines, you brewing ass,
 Have you, you would for Clarets pass ? ”

“ Sir, we defy all London to compare
 A glass of equal wine with our Navarre.
 And then for Barcelona, Syracuse,
 Or Calcavella, now so much in use,
 Florence, and——”

“ Hold ! you prating whelp ; no more,
 But fetch us up a pint of any sort ;
 Navarre, Galicia,—any thing but Port.”

“ Yes, sir.—I hope 'twill please you, sir.”

“ Come, boy, the wine ! Of all Saints, health to th' Mother !—
 By heavens ! lad ; why this is worse than 'tother !
 From this floor's centre may I never stir,
 If 'tis not sweete, and sowre, and hot ; and smells
 Of brimstone,—or of something worse.
 Wine, do you call this poys'nous drink ?
 You're quite beside your wits I think :
 'Tis Florence, Port, Navarre, and all together.
 Here, take your money for your (stuff call'd) wine,
 Which from this time I utterly decline.”

The poet Prior, too, condescends to indulge in an occasional fling at the intrusive beverage, as may be seen in the following couplets from his *Alma* :—

“ And in a cottage or a court,
 Drink fine Champagne or *muddled Port*.”

“ Else (dismal thought !) our warlike men
 Might drink *thick Port* for fine Champagne.”

Again: in his *Cameleon* we read,—

“Or if it be his fate to meet
With folks who have more wealth than wit,
He loves *cheap Port* and double bub,
And settles in the Humdrum club.”

And whilst Shenstone in his well-known “Verses written at a tavern in Henley,” aims a sportive shaft at the same beleaguered butt,—

“And every health which I begin
Converts *dull Port* to bright Champagne,—
Such freedom crown’d it at an inn,”

Soame Jenyns thus points his cynical pen in no complimentary terms:—

“Destruction lurks within the poisonous dose,
A fatal fever, or a pimpled nose.”

The national prejudice appears to have preserved a lingering vitality long after the close of the century, when the expiring lion received a parting kick from the mock Duke, in Mr. Townley’s happy burlesque of *High Life below Stairs*. Says Philip the butler,—

“Here is Claret, Burgundy, and Champagne; and a bottle of Tokay for the ladies: there are tickets on every bottle. But if any gentleman chooses Port—

Duke. Port? *’Tis only fit for a dram!*”

The free indulgence by the Scottish lairds and their Highland clans in the vinous products of France is an historical notoriety, and north of the Tweed English clamour was sure to find a ready sympathy and response. The excitement and discontent there occasioned was great, and only after many sincere though useless demonstrations was the struggle allowed to subside. A sarcastic epigram, current at the time, well depicts the intensity of Celtic vexation and dissent:—

“Firm and erect the Caledonian stood;
Sound was his mutton, and his Claret good.
Let him drink Port! the English statesman cried;
He quaff’d the poison, and his spirit died.”

The consumption of French wine in Scotland during the 16th and 17th centuries was very large, as it was then cheaper than beer or ale, and could be easily paid for in herrings. “A

sad change," laments M. Francisque-Michel, "took place in the 18th *siècle*, when the British government was induced to substitute for our wholesome clarets the pernicious wines of the Peninsula." But the ancient alliance between Scotia and her Gallic neighbour has to this day left its mark on the habits and manners of her people; and ever since living man can remember, the Scotch have been remarkable for their steady addiction to the light vintages of France. The ardent properties of Port wine were not calculated to usurp a deep-rooted taste for Claret, derived from the precepts and example of their forefathers,—a taste, indeed, dating so far back as the regent Albany,—and which the allurements even of their beloved whisky-toddy could never entirely obliterate. "It was noticed," we are told in the *Autobiography of Alex. Carlyle*, D.D. "that Charles Congalton, who happened to sit next to sir David, our president, never filled above a thimbleful in his glass. When asked the reason, he replied that he could not drink any of their London Port, there was such a *drawing-togetherness* in it. 'Ring the bell, Charlie,' said our considerate leader, 'and we will learn if we can't get a bottle of Claret for you.' The bell was rung, the Claret came, and was pronounced very good. The whole company joined in taking that beverage, without which, indeed, no Scotch gentleman in those days *could be exhilarated*."

In evidence of the deep drinking once habitually indulged in by the stalwart denizens of the North, Mr. Cosmo Innes, in his *Early Scottish History*, records the story of baron Kilravock's bout at the village of Findhorn in 1728. He had only one boon companion, who, however, was a well-seasoned toper, and the orgie lasted from Tuesday at noon till Thursday at 7 P.M.* In the interval they consumed,—“Tuesday, 23 bottles of wine; Wednesday, 26 ditto; Thursday, 8 ditto, with 8 Scotch pints of ale (each equal to two English quarts), and two gills of brandy.” The potations of the servitors in attendance were scored sepa-

* At Rome it was generally believed that Caius Piso owed his advancement at the court of Tiberius to his extraordinary bibulous feats; and it is said that he would sit for two days and two nights drinking without intermission, or even once leaving the table.

ately. This remarkable Bacchanalian feat, incredible as it may now appear, was no solitary instance of intemperance, for those were days of unlimited licence. The annals of Scotland recount many a scene of wild excess, evincing the national predilection for ardent friendships and unbounded conviviality. In the *Reminiscences of Scottish Life and Character*, by dean Ramsay, several amusing anecdotes are preserved, confirmatory of the bibulous propensities of past generations, one of which we are induced to transcribe, if only to rescue the prowess of the Kilravock baron from undue suspicion, either of egregious exaggeration or wild eccentricity. "In Ireland," says the worthy dean, "it was the practice to lock the door, and throw the key out of the window, that no one might escape sober. In Scotland a lad was appointed to untie the cravats of such as fell under the table; and on the occasion of a drinking bout at Castle Grant, two stout Highlanders were in attendance to carry up the unconscious guests to their sleeping rooms. On observing the uncommon spectacle of one or two stronger heads than the others walking up without assistance, the gillies were astonished, and exclaimed indignantly, 'Agh! it's sare changed times, it is, at Castle Grant, when gentlemens can gang to bed on their own feet.'" Sinclair, in his *Code of Health*, avers that "a Mr. Vanhorn, of recent notoriety, drank in the course of three-and-twenty years 35,688 bottles, or 59 pipes, of Port wine; a quantity hardly exceeded, perhaps, by the greatest toppers of antiquity."

Britain's hardy Northern sons, equally ardent in their friendships as in their resentments, gaily upheld through successive generations their oft-boasted reputation of being the hardest drinkers and keenest politicians of their day; they proudly exercised the amenities of hospitality, and right royally entertained their willing guests. That these propensities were sustained in full loyalty down almost to our own times, a striking instance is disclosed in the interesting *Memoirs of Archibald Constable*, the eminent Edinburgh publisher of yore, to whom his whilom partner of early days, Mr. Hunter, remarkable for his gastronomic feats and capacity for strong drink, addresses a frequent gossiping note in free and confidential terms:—

"We had a most dreadful day at Brechin Castle, one of the most dreadful ever known in that house. What think you of seven of us drinking thirty-one bottles of red Champagne, besides Burgundy, three bottles of Madeira, &c.? Nine bottles were drunk by us after Maule [the first lord Panmure] was pounded; he had been living a terrible fast life for three weeks previously. . . . To-day we dine with major Ramsay, at Kelly, from which God send us a good deliverance." And on another occasion he writes: "Yesterday we went to Balnagoon, and stayed there all night. Excellent grubbing there, as usual. We had a strong party to dinner, and a good drink till ten or so, but nobody completely pounded. . . . On the whole our southron visitor [Mr. Murray, his colleague and London representative] seemed well pleased, and his steady endurance surprised not a few. He was taken ill, however, soon after, and continued sick for several days. . . . These Englishers will never do in our country. They eat a great deal too much, and drink too little;" doubts, however, that subsequently appear to have received considerable modification from the fastidious critic.

Again: "Yesterday at Eskmont. Maude and Charles Hay came home with us, and stayed till nearly three this morning;—a terrible drink, three bottles of Claret per man, besides punch, &c., after supper. I do not think I ever was in such good order as at present. I have seen every body a stage past me, and asleep each night; and I am this day better than ever. Maule pounded each night, though not any one totally." Unreserved in his confidences, he further announces to his sympathizing friend and business partner, "I arrived late at Brechin, when we had a go at the rose Champagne. How long it lasted I do not know; only I was afraid they would have finished me, though I started fresh, and they had been at it since dinner, of course." Again: "I find I can drink wine much better than punch, though we had one bowl lately after supper between five of us, which, *inter alia*, contained three bottles of our double-strong peat-reek whisky." These feats evidence powers of hardy endurance; yet we learn in the sequel, that such habitual indulgence did not escape altogether the Nemesis of an intemperate career, for he is fain to confess somewhat briefly, if not dolefully,—"I was last night seized with a pain in my foot, which I at first attributed to a tight boot, but which has since turned out to be neither more nor less than a proper fit of the gout. And here I am, sitting with my left foot swollen to the size of a two-shilling loaf. Here end the comforts and commence the troubles of A. G. H."

But whilst rambling thus far northwards, a few words on the

local currency may be noted, as worthy of remembrance. There might yet linger in the memory of many an old couplet, once much in vogue, in caustic reproach of Scotch impecuniosity,—

“How can the rogues pretend to sense?

Why, their pound is only twenty pence!”

and possibly not a few southrons, otherwise well informed, might be under the impression that the Scots in olden times would fain conceal their undoubted straitened condition under a crafty grandiloquence of speech, by bestowing on the paltry sum of five groats an appellation which in England betokened something very close in value upon a golden guinea. But, in sober truth, there was really no affectation anent the national monetary denomination, the simple fact being that it was a result of sheer necessity. Scotch money was originally of as much intrinsic worth as English; but from the year 1355, owing to successive debasements of the coinage, it gradually and continuously declined, till in 1600 it was only one-twelfth of its nominal value, 100*l.* Scots being the equivalent of 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling; at which point it remained till the union of the two kingdoms in 1707, when, of course, its forced circulation ceased, although the habit of computing in the vitiated currency long survived that historical event.

Under the influence of present predilections, it may appear not a little singular that on the first appearance of tea as a beverage in this country, a similar clamour was directed against its adoption as attended the introduction of the wines of Portugal. Although partially known in England rather earlier, it was first brought into vogue in polite circles in 1666 by lords Arlington and Ossory, who brought with them a small quantity from Holland, where it was imported by the Dutch East-India Company. Notwithstanding its great cost, for it then fetched as much as 60*s.* a pound, it soon became a prevailing fashion among the affluent, whilst then, and for a long time afterwards, it constituted a fertile subject for denunciation and abuse. In 1670 it was ridiculed under the name of *hay-water*. In 1678 it was branded as “a base unworthy Indian custom.” In 1746 a physician gravely announced, that as Hippocrates spared no

pains to root out the Athenian plague, so he himself had used his utmost endeavours "to destroy the raging epidemical madness of importing tea into Europe from China." A few years earlier the Grub-street journals attacked it with considerable virulence, asserting amongst other imputations, that "even were it wholesome as balsam or mint, it were yet mischief enough to have a whole population trained to sip warm water in an effeminate mincing manner once or twice every day." Under the stagnant influence of such "outlandish trash," the same writer coolly avers that "women become barren; or if they breed, their blood is so poor that they have not strength to suckle." Among the poorer classes in the agricultural districts the use of sage and other herb teas was formerly pretty general, and for generations held their place among us. The *tisannes* of the French and Swiss have been as yet in no way replaced by the more costly Chinese leaf, and as long ago as the year 1750 our own Dr. Thomas Short favoured the public with a learned dissertation on the virtues of sage and water; whilst writers, even to the present day, hesitate not to deprecate the paucity of refreshing drinks for the panting sons of toil:—

"A summer stillness held the land,
The windmill drooped its idle sail;
Trembling with heat the crystal air
Quivered and glistened, as it were
A silver-woven veil.

"From right to left the mower swept,
Stooping beneath the elm-tree boughs;
The thin sharp blade cut cleanly through,
The full swath, wet with morning dew,
Fell down in heavy rows.

"With understanding critic eye
The rider watched each motion lithe,—
The length of stroke,—the steady swing,
And stopped to hear the whetstone ring
Against the uprais'd scythe.

"But if he saw them droop and flag,
'Thinks he, 'They want their fathers' beer;
And much I dread that tea and slops,
Supplanting honest malt and hops,
Have done the mischief here,

“ ‘Ere scheming placemen taxed his drink,
 No fear the labourer’s arm should tire ;
 And through the healthy summer morn
 His wife was weeding in the corn,
 Who now must tend the fire.’ ”—

LUSHINGTON’S *Rural Ride*.

The Dutch East-India Company, founded in 1602, were the first importers of tea into Europe. “On their second voyage thither,” further remarks Dr. Short, in his elaborate *Discourse on Tea*, “they carried a good store of dried sage, and exchanged every pound of it for three or four pounds of tea, which is often so immoderately and unmeritedly extolled, as if all other kinds of alterative vegetables had been made in vain ; yet most others, viewed in a medical light, afford better assistance than the China leaf. So they praised our wonderful European herb, and endued it with greater virtues than their native shrub could possibly be possessed of. When their tea was first brought to Paris, they sold it at 30 livres per pound, though it was not of the finest kind, that being brought from Japan, which is most valued, being of a smaller leaf, and more delicious smell and taste than any other, and at one time raising its price in France to 200 livres per pound.” The author treats his subject with professional acumen, and whilst frankly admitting the many excellent properties of tea as a general beverage when used in moderation, he concludes by earnestly cautioning his readers against the mischiefs and inconveniences that sometimes attend its constant use.

“It is no wonder,” he says, “that we meet with so many complaints ; but it is wonderful we find no more from the present excessive use of it, some drinking it three or four times a-day, for it is the parent of many serious ailments. It should be confined to afternoon service chiefly, and not made too habitual. . . . Such as lead an idle or sedentary life should either drink little, or have it pretty strong and seldom, to compensate in some measure their want of due exercise ; but hard-working, laborious people have nothing to do with it ; they want a liquor that stays longer in the body, elevates and nourishes more.”

After the lapse of just two centuries it yet remains a disputed point whether the introduction of this exotic sedative can be regarded as an unmitigated boon ; for there are many who

argue, forcibly enough, that it was a poor substitute for the more substantial properties of the matutinal venison pasty, with its complement of home-brewed ale, in the olden time. "It is a curious fact," notes Dr. John Hughes Bennett, in his *Clinical Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Medicine*, "that in proportion as the use of beer and spirits has diminished among civilized nations, that of tea and coffee has increased. Chemistry has failed in telling us why, and all that physiology informs us is, that they are highly stimulating to the nervous system without the narcotizing effects of alcohol. Like the latter, however, if used to excess, they tend to promote indigestion, diminished appetite, and other derangements." Tea, indeed, in a highly concentrated state will produce a paralytic stroke; and a single cup of a strong decoction is sometimes enough to seriously derange the heart's action. The drinking of tea twice or thrice a-day, as is now frequently practised, is provocative of nervous excitement and debility, and is thought to be a fertile source of mental aberration, now so painfully on the increase among all ranks of the community.* To zealous teetotallers this suggestion will doubtless appear calumnious and absurd. It might be so: still it would be a worthy subject of scientific inquiry whether any hidden dangers from excess can possibly lurk in "the cup that cheers, but does not inebriate;" for chemical experiments avouch that "an ounce of good tea contains about ten grains of theine,—an amount sufficient to produce a peculiar kind of intoxication and many unpleasant symptoms, if taken in one day."

On this occult subject, a significant warning voice from Dr. J. T. Arlidge, formerly Medical superintendent of St. Luke's Hospital, with lengthened means of close observation and study, is deserving of serious consideration. On concluding certain re-

* "Lunacy," remark the royal Commissioners, in their official Report for 1868, "was once the subject of a foolish superstition. We now treat insanity better than it was treated by our forefathers; nevertheless, insanity spreads with constant and augmenting strides, and prevails most extensively among the indigent classes. Of the 33,213 patients in the various institutions of England and Wales, 27,361 were pauper lunatics." By the end of 1871 these numbers had increased to 26,818 males and 31,822 females,—a total of 58,640, besides 3,636 males and 4,093 females in the Scottish asylums, the cost of maintenance exceeding one million sterling.

marks in a pathological treatise emanating from his pen, he goes on to say,—

“While on the head of stomach disorders, I will take this opportunity of remarking upon the lamentable amount of sickness consequent upon the abuse of tea by women of the working classes. Instead of using tea as an occasional beverage, they make it a principal article of diet, and drink it, usually without milk or sugar, several times a-day. At most meals bread and butter is the only solid accompaniment. In many cases, doubtless, poverty imposes on them a meagre diet; but even in such instances the one alluded to might be advantageously replaced by other kinds of food not necessarily more expensive; for I am convinced that a deterioration of health among the labouring population, and a lowered vitality in the rising generation, are consequences of such frequent resort to the sedative beverage in question.” In the *Lancet* of May 25, 1872, these opinions are commented on, and fully endorsed and echoed in the following emphatic terms:—“Dr. Arlidge has put forth a very sensible protest against a pernicious and increasing custom which rarely receives sufficient attention, either from the medical profession or the public. He says that the women of the working-classes make tea a principal article of diet, instead of an occasional beverage; they drink it several times a-day, and the result is a lamentable amount of sickness. This is, no doubt, the case; and, as Dr. Arlidge shrewdly remarks, a portion of the reforming zeal which keeps up such a fierce and bitter agitation against intoxicating drinks, might advantageously be diverted to the repression of this very serious evil of tea-tipping among the poorer classes. Tea, in any thing but moderate quantities, is as distinctly a narcotic poison as is opium or alcohol. It is capable of ruining the digestion, of enfeebling and disordering the heart's action, and of generally shattering the nerves. And it should be remembered, that not merely is it a question of narcotic excess, but the enormous amount of hot-water which tea-bibbers necessarily take, is exceedingly prejudicial both to digestion and nutrition. In short, without pretending to place this kind of evil on a level as to general effect with those caused by alcoholic drinks, we may well insist that our teetotal reformers have overlooked, and even to no small extent encouraged, a form of animal indulgence which is as distinctly sensual and pernicious as any beer-swilling or gin-drinking in the world.”

In justification of these declarations it may be added, that the consumption of tea in this kingdom is constantly and largely on the increase. From the years 1811 to 1821 the average

remained pretty steady at 1lb. 4oz. ; in 1841 it was 1lb. 6oz. ; in 1851 it was 1lb. 15oz. ; by 1861 it had increased to 2lb. 11oz. ; and in 1871 to 3lb. 15oz. ; the total quantity on which duty was paid in the latter year exceeding 123,000,000 lbs.

An eminent physician of credit and candour, who once resided for some time in Japan, observes, in his description of the tea-plant, that,—

“A narcotic quality prevails so much in the infusion of it while recent, that the natives are cautious in using it until it has been gathered two years, and its force become moderate. The prevailing fondness of this beverage, perhaps, is mainly owing to this latent charm which it possesses, though in a milder degree than in other narcotics ; for though from its soothing qualities, light astringency, grateful taste and flavour it may be justly ranked among the nervous stomachics, yet other plants, which more eminently possess these qualities, and have often been recommended and substituted in its place, have never so universally prevailed. Different narcotics certainly produce different effects in particular constitutions : some, which in their natural state prove poisonous, may be so corrected as to become powerful and salutary alteratives ; others have a peculiar influence on the mind by removing anxiety and pain, and substituting agreeable sensations. Hence the prevalent and ever-extending use of tea, tobacco, and spirituous liquors ; but the abuse of them by excess evidently injures the constitution, and the true vital strength of the animal spirits. . . .

“The herb tea is commonly found in China, Japan, and some other Indian countries ; the Chinese call it *thee*, the Japonians *tschia*. That of Japan is esteemed much the best, one pound of it being commonly sold for one hundred pounds,* as several great men that have been ambassadors and residents in those parts inform us. The native inhabitants have a great esteem and opinion of it, and are as much employed for their harvest of tea as the Europeans are for their vintage ; for the princes and noblemen of China and Japan drink tea at all hours of the day, and in their visits it is their whole entertainment, the greatest persons of quality boiling and preparing it themselves, every palace and house being furnished with convenient rooms, furnaces, pots, and spoons

* The authority for this curious fact is Dr. Nicholas Tulpus, as quoted from his *Observationes Med.*, lib. 4. ; yet if we are to understand that in the sum above named sterling money is meant, the price appears so startling as to excite a conjecture, that as the French word *livre* signifies a franc as well as a pound, the author used the term in the sense of *monnaie de compte valant vingt sous*, rather than as a pound sterling.

for that purpose ; which they value, as Tulpus assures us, at a higher rate than we do diamonds, gems, and pearls. . . . Yet Simon Pauli exclaims against the use of *thee* as a great drier and promoter of old age, and as a thing unnatural and foreign to the European complexion. . . . One spoonful of this prepared *thee* is enough for one quart of boiling water, and when given in a large dose and in a strong decoction, it often provokes vomitive, as I myself have observed several times.”—*Harleian Miscellany*. 1682.

Port, on its first importation into England, was a much lighter wine than it fortuitously became in after times, yet of high natural alcoholic strength at the place of its nativity. It was not at the outset the growth of the Douro, or even shipped at Oporto ; but as a product of the Minho district, it rather resembled Claret or Burgundy, and was exported from the harbour of Vianna. The popular taste was slow in conforming itself to the exigencies of legislation, and some time elapsed before the wines of France were entirely supplanted. At the period of the Methuen diplomacy the consumption of Portugal wine hardly exceeded 5,924 tuns, which, notwithstanding the increase of population and augmented fiscal burthens on other growths, was not doubled till 1770,—an interval of 67 years. The differential duties, however, in favour of Portugal were potential in their way, and the early preference of French produce was gradually undermined. By 1720, this treaty arrangement had conferred an advantage on our new ally over the produce of other states equivalent to 24*l.* per pipe ; and thus compelled, in a manner, to resort to the banks of the Douro, there is little need to seek for other reasons why Port became the British standard of vinous merit ; whilst the fact certainly demonstrates how much may be done by treaties and taxation in modelling the inclinations and practice of the nation at large. It was not its superior quality or intrinsic worth that first brought this vintage into note, but because it was comparatively low in price. Englishmen, however, are strongly wedded to old habits : the majority still believe Port to be the only real wine in the world, and shiver whenever Hock or Claret is named. The people have long been trained and habituated to

its use, have become seasoned to its fervour, and it is not likely to lose its forced supremacy for some time to come. The augmented consumption of Oporto wine in more recent times, as shown by a comparison of the imports in the first ten years of the last century with the first ten years of the present, is remarkable :—

		tuns	hhd.	gals.
Imports from 1700 to 1710	. . .	81,293	0	9
Ditto „ 1800 „ 1810	. . .	222,022	2	52

the excess in favour of the latter period being equivalent to 281,659 pipes. But even this large augmentation does not exhibit in all their magnitude the free libations poured out by British devotees in honour of the Lusitanian Pomona. Many years ago it appeared in evidence that when the average quantity annually exported to this country was scarcely 20,000 pipes, the actual annual consumption was not less than 60,000 pipes. Now-a-days, spurious Port is produced on a large scale at Taragona, in Spain, which, *au contra*, imports no inconsiderable quantities of dried elderberries, presumably for deepening the colour, if not adulterating the low-class produce of that district, resulting in liquors more or less rough, fruity, fiery, rounded, and tawny cheap drink for the delectation of strong and indiscriminating palates. Many and cogent reasons undoubtedly exist for the addition of *aguardiente* to all young Portuguese vintages, as it tends to hinder fermentation, and so preserve them in a quiescent state. It also fits them for earlier shipment to any clime, with the further advantage of becoming sooner marketable. This expedient may fail in bringing the wine sooner to maturity for table use, but it will certainly check any latent tendency to secondary fermentation, or going turbid when in bottle; it probably may lose colour, and an obvious taste of spirit will neutralize its proper vinous flavour. Should the merchant neglect so to fortify his wine, he would be obliged to wait five or six years before he could safely venture to ship it.

Prior to the year 1715 the Portuguese were considered to be ignorant of the art of preparing wines for exportation. When first brought into this country their produce was sent in a pure state; but about this time the custom commenced of

mingling brandy with the shipments intended for English use, and to such an extent was this carried, that in later exports no less than from 16 to 18 gallons of spirit per pipe were infused, and that often of execrable quality. A fair proportion of alcohol exists naturally in all southern produce, and consequently in that of Oporto as well. What is further added to wines, innately of so much strength, must be injurious in some degree, and can never, like the spontaneously evolved spirit, freely assimilate with the bulk even during fermentation; for it is certain that the mucilage and undecomposed sugar left unabsorbed will always have a tendency to excite a renewal of the fermentative action. The admixture of brandy, however, continued to prevail, and in increasing proportions, notwithstanding the early censure and remonstrance directed against the objectionable custom. Thus we see, by a letter addressed to their agents in the Alto Douro so far back as 1754, the English factors complain that "the grower, at the time of the vintage, is in the habit of checking the fermentation of the wines too soon, by putting brandy into them whilst fermenting; a practice," they emphatically remark, "which must be considered as *diabolical*; for after this the wines will not remain quiet, but are continually tending to ferment, and to become ropy and acid." The agents, in reply, assert that "the English merchants knew that the first-rate wine of the Factory had become excellent; but they wished it to exceed the limits which nature had assigned to it, and that when drunk, it should feel like liquid fire in the stomach; that it should burn like inflamed gunpowder; that it should have the tint of ink; that it should be like the sugar of Brazil in sweetness, and like the spices of India in aromatic flavour. They began by recommending, by way of secret, that it was proper to dash it with brandy in the fermentation to give it strength, and with elderberries or the rind of the grape to give it colour; and as the persons who used the prescription found the wine increase in price, and the English merchants still complaining of a want of strength, colour, and maturity in the article supplied, the recipe was propagated till the wine became a mere confusion of mixtures." Though the picture here drawn may

be thought somewhat exaggerated, it conveys, it is to be feared, too just a representation of English notions and taste in Port wines. By a process so objectionable a considerable additional outlay is incurred, and the prime cost doubled or trebled to those who can afford the luxury of reducing such wines, in some twenty years, to the state to which they would probably have been brought earlier by a diligent application of the recognised principles of fermentation and storage. But enhanced expense is not the sole or worst evil of this practice.

When the young wine arrives in this country, it is of a very dark purple colour, a full rough body, with a kind of bitter-sweet taste, and a dominant odour of *aguardiente*. After it has remained some time in the wood, the acerbities of the flavour abate ; but it is only when it has been further kept several years in bottle that the force of the brandy is completely subdued, and the special character of the wine developed. During the process of melioration, a considerable portion of the extractive matter is precipitated on the sides of the vessels in the form of crust, and when this progresses too rapidly, or in any great excess, the wine loses colour, becomes pale or tawny, and parts with a portion of its flavour and aroma. In some instances this change occurs much earlier than in others, especially with the tinted produce of the white grape, and it is always to be hastened by a further admixture of brandy. Whether the addition of ardent spirit was originally made with the view of enabling the wines to bear sea-carriage, or merely to pander to a supposed defective or depraved palate, is of little importance to determine. In this country, however, it has become a recognised maxim, not only that the quality is much improved by the infusion, but that they will not even keep any length of time without it. Prolonged observation and experience certainly tend to favour the prevailing opinion, that an addition of spirit is essential to retain the acquired character of Port wine ; and this view will be strengthened not a little by the recent investigations conducted by Mr. Charles Bernard, government Commissioner of the wine inquest for Portugal, who in his official report* tells

* *Parliamentary Return*, April 1862.

us, that "It is the invariable practice in the Alto Douro, with the best wines, to add spirit to the must to check fermentation, and insure its retaining its sweetness. Only second-class wines are allowed to remain any time without spirit, and when such is the case, the wine is generally rough and harsh. . . . I understand that the best and strongest natural wines require the greatest amount of extraneous spirit (say 20 per cent.) to keep them in a sound and improving condition. . . . The national taste of England has changed, and may do so again in favour of the more simple and pure wines, when probably the growers of Spain and Portugal may find a corresponding and successful mode of treatment for their wines to meet the altered public taste. I cannot, however, set my own experience in these matters too positively against the general opinion of those most deeply interested in the true appreciation of their staple produce; and the entire sum of my information received while among them is unmistakably in favour of the extensive use of distilled spirit to strengthen and keep the wines they make."

Towards the middle of the last century, however, the admixtures and adulterations commonly practised had become so glaring and universal as to cause a serious diminution in the demand; and so low had prices fallen, that in 1752-3 a pipe of the then Oporto wine was to be bought at the place of shipment for 2*l.* 16*s.* The failures and distress naturally attendant on a sudden revulsion and stagnation of trade were severely felt, and under the influence of public clamour and discontent the Government was induced to authorize the formation of a national joint-stock company for the superintendence and protection of the culture and future commerce of their staple product. In 1756, under the enlightened guidance of the marquis of Pombal, a charter for the exclusive management of the upper Douro was granted to the Oporto Wine Company, the regulations and powers of their charter being ample for the suppression of the pernicious practices common both in cultivation and treatment, wherein ignorance had combined to nullify the advantages Nature had bestowed for a prosperous culture of their vine-lands. Had the company done its duty, and

eradicated the evils so long and notoriously prevalent, the wine of Oporto, naturally of a high character, would have further improved ; but if the manner in which it exercised the authority delegated to it be looked into, we shall find it not only grossly betraying its trust, but exhibiting all the odious features of a rigid and grinding monopoly ; and so baneful and continuous have been the abuses of their privilege, as repeatedly to call forth the censures of the ablest writers of their own country. The narrow and mercenary system they pursued has borne its natural fruit in high prices, low quality, and short supplies. The abundance on the banks of the Douro, and the capabilities of the country for unlimited extension, were unquestionable ; yet by arbitrary restrictions, and notwithstanding the triple advantage of a ready and exclusive market, exceptional duties, and an increasing population both in wealth and numbers, the imports here were actually less in the five years 1818–22, than for a corresponding term so far back as 1731. At that period, too, the cost was under 8*l.* per pipe ; in 1818 the price at Oporto was 48*l.*, with no certainty, even then, that the wine retained either its certified quality or most perfect state.

In the annals of his country the marquis of Pombal must ever be regarded as a wise and beneficent statesman of the highest order. Looking on the astute Sully as a political model, he emulated the career, and in his own sphere rivalled the fame of that illustrious favourite of Henry IV., sustained as he was by the undeviating confidence of his sovereign Dom Joseph during a period of service extending over twenty-seven years. Besides the many salutary improvements achieved by his reforming genius,—municipal, educational, literary, financial, military, and social, the commercial portion of the Portuguese community were indebted to the marquis of Pombal for legislative measures calculated to revive the dwindling interests of the culture of the grape, as one of the main sources of national prosperity.

“In August 1756,” writes a recent biographer, “the principal wine-growers of the upper Douro had represented to the Government that this branch of agriculture was so reduced in the three provinces of Beira, Minho, and Traz-os-Montes, that the produce did not repay the expense

of cultivation ; that the profit was in the hands of the tavern-keepers at Oporto, who adulterated the wines to an incredible extent, which rendered them injurious to the health of the consumers, and that the formation of a company was the only means of obviating these manifold evils. The object of the company was to preserve the quality of the wines, and to benefit the growers by establishing a regular price for their produce. In a decree issued accordingly by Pombal, it was enacted that the company should have the exclusive privilege of purchasing all the wines grown within a particular district at a fixed price for a certain period after the vintage. When that period had elapsed, the wine-growers were at liberty to sell in whatever market they pleased those wines which remained unpurchased."

These fiscal reforms were followed by serious riots among the people, led on apparently by the wine-sellers. Disturbances such as these, however, were not the only attempts at opposition to the decree, for, says the same authority,—“The English, seeing that this most important branch of commerce was snatched from their hands, and finding themselves in the Alto Douro dependent on those very wine-growers whom they had hitherto treated as slaves, and whose possessions had been entirely in their hands, left no pretext or argument which they could invent unemployed to ruin the company.”

Complaints, appeals, and petitions in vain poured in to shake the decision of the Minister, who, further libelled, persecuted, and traduced, fell finally a sacrifice to court intrigues and priestly rancour, fanned by mistaken popular clamour. Not the least annoying of the attacks made at that time on Pombal was the accusation of being swayed by personal interest in the sale of the wines of Oeyras, where the vineyards were his own property, and from this he defends himself with much earnestness, declaring that

“The English and Portuguese merchants at Oporto discovered, by the Custom-house entries of that city, that before the employment of the elderberry (with which the wines are adulterated for the purpose of colouring them,) it was usual to carry to Oporto the wines of Oeyras, at the price of 58,000 reis per pipe, in order to give, to those of the Douro the dark and lasting colour which they do not naturally possess. In consequence of this discovery, the wines of Oeyras were eagerly sought after both by the junta of the company and by the English merchants at Oporto. I made inquiries on the subject, and found that, in fact, the wine of Oeyras was so full-bodied and possessed such strength, that

one pipe of it was sufficient to colour and preserve ten pipes of the Douro wine, and that the company, by the purchase of these wines, would enjoy an eminent advantage over the English, who could not obtain them. My bailiff was directed to prepare the wines 'after the manner of the English,' but to give the advantage to the company, and this notwithstanding the English sent to tempt me with the offer of fifteen or eighteen moidores per pipe. To which I replied, that if I were living in a private condition, I should dispose of my wines to the best purchaser ; but that, as it was, I considered the company as the offspring of my Ministry, and consequently I desired its wines to be superior to those of the English."

A supplementary decree, issued by him August 30, 1757, further directs "That no elderberry juice should be mixed with the wines ; that no dung should be laid upon the vineyards in the Oporto wine districts, by which means wine was procured in large quantities, to the ruin of the quality ; and that the prices at which the company bought the wines should be raised."—*Memoir of the Marquis of Pombal*, by the CONDE DA CARNOTA.

It was not an active and increasing demand from satisfied consumers, but the crafty mercantile management, that caused the excessive increase of price. Sir Edward Barry remarked, in his *Observations on Modern Wines*, that the Port wines of his time, 1775, "were got much heavier and more heating than formerly, and took much longer time to mature ; and since the Methuen treaty has in a manner compelled us to drink them, we may justly complain that, through the impolitic conduct of this company, we have not only had to purchase their wine at an enhanced cost, but have not even been allowed to obtain it in its best and purest form." The effects of more recent legislation will, it may be hoped, rectify the evils inflicted by an unwise and grasping policy, and the interests of the general community be thereby permanently advanced. It is evident that heretofore justice has not been done to the wines of the Douro, nor have their true character been fairly developed. Let the cultivators be free, let care and delicacy be observed in the preparation of the vintages, and there need be no fear for a prosperous result.

The correspondence between Mr. Barron, British consul at Oporto, and her Majesty's government, October 1850, supplies

much curious and interesting information connected with this long-standing grievance, and from so reliable a source we transfer the following particulars, derived from statements remarkable for their intelligence and lucidity. Referring to the system which then prevailed in the conduct of the wine-trade, he bears testimony to the fact, that highly objectionable regulations were officially sanctioned by the Portuguese executive to enhance the cost of the Douro wines to the English consumer, without any adequate measures for preventing "the exportation to Great Britain of any but the best quality,"—all kinds of wine, of the first, second, or third class, being, in fact, constantly shipped to this country as freely as to any other part of the world. A decree of May 29, 1850, ordered that the duty on all vintages of the "first quality," to whatever country exported, shall be the same; but wine of the "second quality" may still be sent to places out of Europe as before. Now, writes the consul, on Port wines of the "second quality" the export duty is only sixpence a-pipe; but wine for any place in Europe must be nominally of the "first quality," and on such the export duty is 3*l*. 9*s*. 7*d*. per pipe. In both cases it is requisite that it should be accompanied from the stores to its shipment by an official certificate, granted for wine of the quality the exporter states it to be; but whether it is identical with that for which the certificate was obtained, or even wine of the same kind, no inspector or authority at any time inquires. For such as are intended for consignment to an European port, if not placed in the first class by the official tasters, passes must be purchased. These are procurable only from holders of wine nominally of the "first quality," but unsaleable as such, and for which sometimes as much as 5*l*. a-pipe is exacted. The English merchant, therefore, has to pay 8*l*. or 9*l*. per pipe more than the very same wine would cost a New York or Brazilian shipper,—a most important difference, especially when the wines are new, or low in price. The amount of export duty raised on first-quality wine is about 84,000*l*. a-year, more than nine-tenths being contributed by the English importer; of which the Oporto Wine Company receives annually 34,300*l*., in consideration of its obligation to purchase yearly from the

farmers a certain quantity of wines of the second and third qualities, none of which, under either denomination, can be exported to England. These fiscal regulations, although ostensibly so intended, are not conducive to the benefit of trade, as testified by the Commercial Association of Oporto, who, when consulted by the Portuguese government, described "the practice as barbarous ; that wines of the second class were as good as those of the first class ; and that the denominations ' second and third quality ' were a gross deception, and injurious alike to the farmer and the merchant." The effect has been an artificial scarcity of wine exportable to England, and therefore an undue enhancement of the market value, without sustaining the cultivator or benefiting the consumer.

The character and classification of the several wines is determined by public officers, twelve in number, appointed for that duty. In conformity with the law, the trials of wine last seven hours a-day ; and for no less than six hours at a time these diligent employés are occupied in tasting wine of every description produced in the district under survey. Sweet wine and dry, with or without brandy, light, full, pure, or mixed with colouring or sweetening matter, are all tasted by them promiscuously, each officer deciding on seldom less than 150, and sometimes even as many as 300 samples in the six hours. Under so delusive an examination it would be impossible, if the wines were to be classed according to their purity, soundness, and fine flavour, for the decision of the tasters to be right, except by accident. What would be most likely to attract their approval would be such as were extremely full and fervent, whilst the light, and more delicate and finely flavoured wines would probably be rated low, or rejected altogether. Some time after the trial, the Government determines for how much of the " first quality " certificates shall be issued to qualify it for exportation as such,—all the remainder being ranked as wine of the " second quality." This decision, however, seems to depend more upon the representation of the company as to the quantity in stock at Oporto, than on the goodness or abundance of the vintage.

The maker of inferior kinds, remarks Mr. Barron in conclu-

sion, must profit largely by regulations which encourage, if they do not compel, the owners of good vineyards to infuse brandy and colouring matter. That the wines of the upper Douro, if well fermented and carefully made, need more than a very small addition of ardent spirit is exceedingly doubtful. Certainly, good wines sent to the Brazils keep, notwithstanding the length of the voyage and the high temperature to which they are exposed, with about half as much spirit as those meant for England, and it is probable that even a considerable portion of this reduced quantity is unnecessary. To provide the brandy used in the wines imported yearly into England, more than 30,000 pipes of wine are distilled; and on this brandy, if charged as spirits, the duty would amount to not less than 400,000*l.* a-year. Doubtless, it is highly advantageous for Portugal to be able to send so large a quantity of her produce to this country; but it is not a little surprising that any artificial regulations should be permitted, which, without conceding the British importers any privilege or equivalent, burthen their wines with duties on exportation amounting to more than 78,000*l.* per annum, and yet further charges, in benefit of petty interests, for produce that does not find its way to this country at all, equal to 50,000*l.* a-year more,—to say nothing of the arbitrary restrictions on quantity, enforced with a view to the enhancement of price. The royal decree of May 1850 does not place British and American traders on an equal footing,—wines of the first quality, and a very large portion ranked in the second class, differing only in name. All that it accomplishes is, to enable exporters to ship for places out of Europe wine certified of the first quality on payment of the high export duty, or as wine but of second quality, paying only sixpence a-pipe, as they may think fit.* The evil, however, would seem to be inveterate,

* By a decree of 11th October, 1852, the Portuguese government equalized their export duties on Port wine to all the world, by a reduction of two-thirds of the original tax on all shipments from Oporto to ports in Europe; but as the distinction of qualities was suffered to remain unchanged, *bilhettes* or permits retain their former obstructive position and market value. This tardy concession to sounder commercial views not producing the relief expected from it for a languishing trade, a further ordinance of 1866 directed the entire abolition of the fiscal charges previously levied on

since we find it stated in the official report of the hon. Edward R. (now lord) Lytton, her Majesty's secretary of Legation at Lisbon, dated January 1867, that—

“All Port wine hitherto exported for the English market is largely mixed with brandy, and is composed almost if not quite as much of elderberries as of grapes. . . . This is the composition of all the Port wine hitherto sent to England. No pure wine,—no wine not thus specially adulterated for the English taste, was allowed by the government committee of tasters to pass the bar of the Douro for export to England prior to the year 1865.” Similarly, in his official return writes home sir Augustus Paget,—“It is a fallacy to suppose that such a thing as what is called pure Port wine exists.”

Now the fruit of the elder-tree, doubtless, is harmless enough, and most persons will readily admit that elderberry-wine has merits of its own, is a pleasant and cheery beverage, and by no means languishes for want of able panegyrists.

“To evince our regard for it,” says Leigh Hunt, in his amusing *Autobiography*, “we sat up a little club called the ‘Elders,’ and with hot goblets of the spicy juice we finished the evening. It was not the liquor of that name you buy in the shops, and which is a mixture of brandy and verjuice; but the vintage of the genuine berry, which is admired wherever it is known, and which the antients unquestionably symbolized under the mystery of the ‘bearded Bacchus,’ the senior god of that name,— ‘Brother of Bacchus, *elder* born.’

Be this as it may, it sent us happily to our beds with such an extraordinary twofold inspiration of Bacchus and Somnus, that, falling asleep, we would dream half an hour on the last jest, and wake up again in laughter.” A tumbler of hot elderberry wine on a frosty night would be esteemed by most as a good and soothing cordial, too good, indeed, to serve as a mere mask to delude corpulent Port-wine drinkers; for the juice of the elderberry is not the juice of the grape, and no fitting substitute for it.

The mature judgment and practical experience of the late baron Forrester, Mr. consul Barron, and the hon. Edward R. Lytton, as conveyed in preceding pages, have encountered the wine exports. We may, therefore, expect to make acquaintance with some of the miscellaneous Lusitanian vintages. The natural unsophisticated growths of Portugal resemble Burgundy in character, and it certainly will not do to initiate their reception under the still venerated name of Port.

sceptical criticism of Mr. Oswald Crawford, himself British consul at Oporto, and challenges some mention in this place. Writing from that city February 1867, he seeks to gainsay the practice of any systematic adulteration of the Douro vintages destined for the English market, by means of the addition of elderberry-juice, or any excess of ardent spirit. Resort to the elder-tree, he avers, has long been abandoned, and the infusion of brandy "is now strictly limited to the minimum absolutely necessary" to make it keep. What measure of success will attend the strictures of Mr. Crawford may be best estimated by the important admissions contained in his own report, in the course of which the following passages occur :—

"The wines of Portugal, notwithstanding their high qualities, would not, probably, have found the acceptance they have done but for the imposition (in their favour) of a discriminating duty upon them by the treaty of 1703. . . . The wine-making, though at first sight primitive, is in all essential particulars very cautiously and skilfully performed. The over-ripe or inferior grapes being picked out, the rest are thrown into a large stone-built vat. Into this as many men as can easily find room enter, and tread out the juice. The men stay in from twenty to thirty hours (!), when the must is allowed to stand until a thorough fermentation has taken place. A small portion of brandy is then added, as is also done with Sherry and Madeira, to prevent the wine, containing as it does so many rich ingredients, from running into an excessive fermentation, and so losing too much of its saccharine matter. The necessity or expediency of so adding spirit at this stage of the process has been disputed by persons perhaps only theoretically conversant with the process of wine-making ; but it is difficult to apply preconceived theories to the subject in the presence of persons who have made it the business of their lives, whose interest it is to use as little spirit as possible. . . . It is very certain, that when made without brandy, the wines of the Douro, even if they would keep, which is a disputed point, have not any of the softness or flavour of Port wine, but are intermediate in character between Claret and Burgundy, without possessing either the delicate bouquet of the one, or the flavour and 'roundness' of the other. . . . It is certainly the case, that the clarety wines of Portugal require less brandy for their preservation than the richer wines of the upper Douro, being made for consumption within the twelvemonth. If required to be kept longer, they have added to them a certain per-

centage of spirit, while the Douro wines, even those meant for consumption in the country, require nearly twice as much.

“The admixture of spirit with Port wine is, at present, probably no more than is absolutely necessary. There are now upwards of 100,000 pipes of wine in stock in this city; and after a series of very careful inquiries, my opinion is that, in the case of these stocks, 39 per cent. is about the average proportion of proof spirit to wine. Some few wines, mostly new, may contain as little as 36, and again a few richer ones 41, or even 42 and 43 degrees; and about 1 per cent. is added on shipment. . . . A gentleman from Lisbon is at present employed here in investigating, on behalf of the Portuguese government, the strength of the wine now held in stock. Although his report has not yet been published, it is well known here that his experiments show the average strength to be 40 per cent., or one degree higher than I have given it. . . . The assertion of Mr. Forrester that Port wine was adulterated with treacle, elderberries, and geropiga, though contradicted by every gentleman in the trade, may or may not have been well founded at the time, but it certainly is not the case now; and the statement made to me that only about 1 per cent. of the Port wine now made is stained with elderberry, —and that wine of a very inferior quality,—may be accepted as truthful.

“The use of elderberry is mentioned as having been commonly resorted to so long ago as 1727. That the trees were originally planted for the purpose of adulteration there can be no doubt, but the demand having ceased, the trees are being destroyed. . . . Geropiga is still employed to some small extent; but it is not the article described as being made with treacle, unfermented grape-juice, elderberry, and brandy. At present the term geropiga is only applied to what is called a *vinho mudo*; that is, a must checked at the height of the saccharine fermentation by the admixture of about 32 per cent. of proof spirit. . . . It is to be observed, however, that there are two varieties of geropiga,—one the liquid I have described, and the other *geropiga tinta*, or coloured geropiga; that is, darkened with elderberry, and is, I believe, seldom used to colour wines in this country. The true geropiga is added to wines requiring sweetness without a loss of alcoholic strength; and it is obvious that the combination of the spirit with partly-fermented wine is the least objectionable mode of imparting these qualities. . . . The use of geropiga is here universally stated to be confined to poor wines shipped at low prices.

“The wines shipped to England are either ‘vintage’ wines, that is, the wines of different vineyards, but of the same year, blended into a

harmonious combination, or 'brand' wines, that is a compound of as many years or vintages as the shipper chooses. . . . This blending of wines has been attacked as a vicious practice. It is followed, however, in the preparation of other wines besides Port, notoriously so with all Sherries. The various growths of Bordeaux are blended together, and the finer sorts, even, have wines of a different province added to them. With Port it is the same: the excellence of the wine depends not entirely upon the soil or aspect of the vineyards, upon the care employed in manufacture, the excellence of the grapes, or the suitableness of the climate, but most materially upon the skill, knowledge, taste, and character of the blender (!), and of course, in a great degree, upon his control over extensive stocks of different wines wherewith to produce the exact brand at the exact price required. A fine Port may therefore be considered as a work of art (!), as well as a production of nature."

Yes, truly; for, as the proverb goes,—“Oporto wine is the son of many fathers;” and as Mr. Crawford's main object would seem to be the advocacy, in the interest of the Portuguese merchant, of a reduction of import duty on all wines, whatever their alcoholic strength, to a uniform charge of 1s. per gallon, his own maxim may, perhaps, be conceded that “the admixture of spirit with Port is, at present, probably no more than is absolutely necessary;” and that for its preservation, “the amount used is the true necessary minimum.” However this may be, it can hardly be doubted that the integrity of the authorities quoted above remains unimpeached. If defence, indeed, were needed, Mr. Lytton has himself interposed effectually to dispel the gathering cloud of wine heresy so industriously put forth; and in an exhaustive supplementary despatch to the Foreign-office, July 6, 1867, he not only justifies his former statements, but fortifies the opinions he enunciated by additional and cogent evidence.

“My own belief is,” he says, “that no pure Port wine,—that is to say, no Port wine not largely mixed with adventitious spirit, has ever reached the English market. . . . It is also my belief that the peculiar colour of nearly all Port wines hitherto drunk in England, (a colour which is strikingly different from all those drunk in Portugal,—by the Portuguese themselves, at least,) can only be produced by artificial means, and is effected by an infusion of elderberry juice. The Paiz de Vinhateiro abounds in elder-trees, the berries of which are dried in the

sun, or in kilns. The wine is then thrown on them, and trodden till it is thoroughly imbued with their colouring matter. Brandy is then added in the proportion of from 3 to 16 gallons to every pipe of 115 gallons. . . . Mr. Johnstone, of the London custom-house, whose keen intelligence is exercised upon unequalled practical experience of this subject, has estimated the average quantity of elderberry matter in every 115-gallon pipe of Port wine entered at the port of London to be as much as five gallons 'either dry or in geropiga.' . . . 'I find,' observes Mr. Johnstone, 'that the strength of the spirit commonly used in Portugal varies from 45 per cent. o.p. to 50 per cent. o.p., and I assume it at its lowest; viz. 45 per cent. But the German spirit, now so largely imported for fortifying purposes into wine-growing countries, is often as high as 70 per cent., and rarely below 67 per cent. The composition here given applies to the higher qualities of Port wine. To the half-fermented wine there is added, to check second fermentation,—

	Galls.		Proof Spirit.
First,	25	brandy at 45°, equal to	36'25 galls.
and say	5	of geropiga or elderberries,	
then	6	more of brandy, equal to	8'70 „
again	2	„ „ after racking, equal to . .	2'90 „
and	1	„ „ on shipment, „ „	1'45 „
<hr/>			
Total,	39	liquid gallons, equal to	49'30

That would be of proof spirit on the pipe of 115 gallons, a little above the maximum of 42 degrees of the higher duty of 2s. 6d.' . . . This is the composition of all the Port wine hitherto sent to England. . . . These brandied Ports are not manufactured for the Portuguese, but for the English. At the tables of the affluent Port wine in England is fast becoming to be regarded almost as *liqueur* wine, or *vin de luxe*: it has certainly ceased to be a staple beverage. At dinner it is not drunk at all; at dessert it no longer seems to be a favourite; and, in all probability, a glass or two of it at the most after cheese will soon be the maximum quantity of Port drunk at the tables of the upper classes. Its principal consumers, indeed, are now a certain portion of the middle class in this country,—farmers especially, yeomen, and even a large proportion of country gentlemen, who still like their potations to be strong and cordial. . . . By the law of 1865 the old system was abolished. The trade is now perfectly free; and I shall heartily rejoice if my countrymen are at any future time enabled to drink and enjoy in England those light, limpid, exhilarating, and wholesome wines which the Portuguese themselves prefer, but which I have never yet seen at

any English table. If the consumer, however, continues to demand loaded Ports, neither the manufacturer nor the merchant is to be blamed for providing him with them."

Mr. Lytton's very able letter, printed in the official *Reports from Her Majesty's Consuls*, September 1867, must have afforded pleasure and advantage to every lover of genuine wine, whatever his preferences or predilections. The complimentary terms therein expressed with reference to the former edition of this book would of course be misplaced by repetition here; yet commendation from such a quarter, and on such an occasion, cannot be allowed to pass unheeded, without remark or expression of special acknowledgment, serving as it undoubtedly has to stimulate the desire for further research and information, novel or incidental, applicable to our present purpose.

Such, then, were some of the abuses, arising from baneful regulations and inane supervision intended for the gain of the few at the expense of the many, which called loudly for inquiry and rectification through the potent influence of the advanced intelligence and enlightened commercial policy of later times. Narrow restrictions, pernicious monopoly and extortion, were permitted to trammel the vine cultivation of the Alto Douro, conducive only of artificial quality, artificial scarcity, and factitious prices for the British market. These evils will no longer be tolerated. The enlarged views of the English government, with respect to its fiscal imposts on wine, will re-act with considerable stringency on its commercial relations with Portugal. The prosperity of that country depends on her vintages, and liberal measures for greater freedom of mercantile intercourse have already been propounded in her legislature. The Douro yields wines of great excellence, whilst much of the produce of the provinces of Traz-os-Montes, Beira, and Minho, hitherto confined to local use, can compete with the lighter vintages of France; and the time, probably, is not far distant when the Portuguese wine-trade will be greatly and profitably amplified.

The white sorts chiefly known to us are the Lisbon, a useful sweet wine, possessing considerable body; Bucellas, a well-

known table variety, the produce of the Hock grape transplanted to Lisbon ; Termo, a light refreshing wine, grown near the mouth of the Douro ; and Carcavellos, known also as Carcavella, a sweet wine of a delicious muscatel flavour, grown in the same vicinity. In Estremadura extensive plantations are spread over either bank of the Jago, and within 60 kilomètres of the capital itself. Lisbon and the adjoining territories supply red kinds of excellent quality, and in great abundance. Here is the source of an esteemed light vintage known as Colares Port, which, when pure, contains some peculiar and valuable properties ; being soft, slightly acidulous, fragrant, and moderately alcoholized, it is often prescribed for its dietetic virtues, and for deficiency of stamina. The growths of Lamego, Torres Vedras, and Monção, the latter of high local celebrity, are described as sufficient for the supply of a kingdom.

The grape-blight first made its appearance on the Portuguese vines in 1853, and appears to have reached its climax in 1856-7. The effects of the distemper in this region were deplorable : hardly any of the white varieties escaped, and a serious blow was struck at the national prosperity. It annihilated the most choice and expensive Portugal wine, reduced the annual crop to one quarter of an average, and impaired the character of the remnant,—lessening the value of the exports and its reputation in the chief markets ; numberless vine-grounds were abandoned, and many uprooted altogether. The failure of the vine crop was the most disastrous event that could happen to the wine-farmers of that country, as they depend for existence on their grapes, much of the soil being too poor for other culture.





SECTION VII.

“Men and maidens briskly spring,
O'er their shoulders baskets fling ;
Fill'd with grapes of purple glow,
To the wine-press quick they go.
Men alone, with nimble feet,
On the gushing clusters meet ;
Dancing, crush the juices out,
And a song to Bacchus shout.”—*Anacreon*.

The Wines of Spain.

BLESSED with a benignant climate, the richest vintages, and abundant produce, this kingdom, the Tarshish of the Bible, has long held a distinguished place among the chief vine-bearing territories of repute ; and the growths of the Iberian peninsula rank deservedly high in the estimation of leading connoisseurs, not only in England, but all over the world. If France lays claim to the first honours in this respect, it is because science has led the way to eminence, and yielded to delicate manipulation that which Nature had well-nigh accorded to Spain without such appliances. With every disadvantage of the indolent and injudicious process in manufacture there pursued, its vintages are very bounteous, much of which is excellent. Of the red class, perhaps the Spaniards can hardly boast of many that can rival the more delicate growths and perfect bouquet of other lands ; but in the production of dry white, and certain kinds of sweet wine, they stand very high, and the trade in them extends to every part of the globe. Spain has thus secured an established reputation, notwithstanding her neglect in conforming to the requisites important to a wine-producing country of present times. She might, indeed, become one of the first countries in the world for vinous cordials, were the industry and aptitude of her people equal to the occasion.

In estimating the general character of the wines of any country considerable allowance must be made, not only for the prevailing habits and taste of the natives, but for the peculiar disadvantages in respect of internal commerce and transit under which they may be placed.

"The Spaniard himself," observes Mr. Ford, in his *Gatherings from Spain*, "is neither curious in Port, nor particular in Madeira; he prefers quantity to quality, and loves flavour much less than he hates trouble. Local in every thing, he takes the goods the gods provide him just as they come to hand: he drinks the wine that grows in the nearest vineyards; and if there are none, then regales himself with the water from the least distant spring. It is so in every thing: he adds the smallest possible exertion of his own to the bounties of nature; his object is to obtain the largest produce from the smallest labour. . . . The Sherry owes its excellence to foreign, not to native skill, the principal growers and makers Europeans, and their system altogether un-Spanish. Nothing can be more rude, antique, and unscientific than the wine-making in those localities where no stranger has ever settled; but it must be confessed that the provincial process is very picturesque and classical. Often have we ridden through villages redolent with vinous aroma, and inundated with the blood of the berry, until the very mud was incarnadined. What a busy scene! Donkeys laden with panniers of the ripe fruit, damsels bending under heavy baskets, men with reddened legs and arms, joyous and jovial as satyrs, hurry jostling on to the rude and dirty vat, into which the fruit is thrown indiscriminately, the black-coloured with the white ones, the ripe branches with the sour, the sound berries with those decayed. No pains are taken, no selection is made. The filth and negligence are commensurate with this carelessness; the husks are either trampled under naked feet, or pressed out under a rude beam; in both cases every refining operation is left to the fermentation of nature, for there is a divinity that shapes our ends, rough hew them how we may."

The Spaniard, when he drinks wine as an indulgence, gives the preference to those which are rich and sweet. Hence he prefers the growths of Malaga, Alicante, and Fuencaral more highly than those of Xeres, which, unquestionably, are the more perfect, and generally most valued by other nations. The great abundance, too, which commonly prevails, makes him careless of securing a particular supply; or if he were disposed to take any

pains about it, the difficulties of carriage and imperfect means of storage would be sufficient to prevent or neutralize the incipient wish, and thus the local produce is made sufficient to meet the local demand. The Navarrese drink their Peralta, the Basques their own Chacolet,—a poor *vin ordinaire*; the Arragonese are supplied from the vineyards of Carineña, the Catalans from those of Sidges and some others; the latter vintages being exported largely to Bordeaux to enrich Clarets for exportation, and as it is dark in colour and full-flavoured, much comes to England to concoct what is denominated curious old Port, and vended at a low price. The fiery and acrid brandy made from the Beni Carlo is shipped to Cadiz, to the extent of 1,000 butts a year, to doctor up worse Sherry. Leon has a wine of its own, grown chiefly near Zamora, and Madrid derives its supply from Taranco, Arganda, and the vineyards of La Mancha. Bottles and casks, however, are rarely met with anywhere, and subterraneous wine-cellars, except in the monasteries and large commercial towns, are almost unknown. Under such circumstances it can be matter of little surprise that the ordinary Spanish wines should fall so much below the excellence that might be looked for from the many natural advantages they possess,—an evil, however, of easy and perhaps early remedy through an ameliorated social condition.

The wines of Spain are grown on a soil highly congenial to the culture of the vine, for the most part calcareous, of which carbonate of lime forms two-thirds, and often three-fourths. The sun ripens the grape without those hazards from chill and humidity to which, in a more northern clime, the vintage is constantly liable. Hence the crop rarely fails, though in the southern parts of the kingdom the summer heat is so intense, that they are obliged to frequently irrigate the vines. From north to south, sites, soils, and aspects of the happiest kind cover the face of the country. The vineyards are principally on slopes and declivities, and the grapes are often left to hang until they begin to shrivel in the sun. For making Sherry, red and white grapes are used indiscriminately: pale, amber, and brown are equally the product of the same kind of fruit, varied by differing modes of treatment. The finer wines are mostly of a straw

colour, which deepens with age to golden ; and such as bear a darker shade contain a notable portion of concentrated brown wine. Colour, however, is not a reliable criterion, as the lowest qualities exported are generally pale wines, rendered ardent by a free admixture of brandy. The best Sherries have nothing added but wine of equal quality, which is done periodically by the merchants, who maintain the character of their stock by annually replenishing the tuns.

The best white wines are grown in the southern districts of St. Lucar and Xeres de la Frontera, in the province of Seville. Their manufacture is conducted by the agents or principals of British and French houses, who reside in the locality, and to this may be attributed the main cause of the marked improvement of later years. Real Sherry, indeed, although grown in a limited nook of the Spanish peninsula, is practically a foreign wine, made and drunk by foreigners, for the generality of its own people do not like its strong and vitiated flavour, still less its price ; and it would be hardly procurable in the inland towns but for the demand created by our travelling countrymen, and even then it is treated and sold as a liqueur. The quality of the wine depends on the grape and the soil, the produce becoming inferior in proportion as the vineyards get more distant from the central part of the Xeres district, the best kinds being obtained from the slowest ripening fruit. When the period of the vintage arrives, the utmost activity prevails. The bunches are plucked and spread out for some days on matting ; the unripe berries are separated, and exposed longer to the sun, by which they improve. Each collection of grapes sufficient to yield a butt of must, previously to being trodden and pressed, is invariably dusted over with from twenty to forty pounds of burnt plaster of Paris, (sulphate of lime). The effect of this severe treatment is, to precipitate the tartaric and malic acids contained in the must, and to substitute sulphuric acid in their place ; while, to secure a cooler temperature, the treading out the fruit is conducted by night, when the juice is left to pass the stages of fermentation, and afterwards carefully housed in the *bodega*, or wine-store. In the first year after vintage a decided difference

takes place in these new wines. Some become coarse, others sour, and others good : those only which exhibit delicacy, body, and flavour are called *fnos*, or fine. In a lot of a hundred butts rarely more than twelve to eighteen are found really deserving this epithet. When mature and perfected, Sherry wine is made up of contributions from many butts. The peculiar body and flavour of one barrel serve to correct another, until the proposed standard is produced ; and to such a certainty has this uniform admixture arrived, that manufacturers are enabled to supply for any number of years exactly that special quality and colour which particular customers sometimes demand.

After a year or two's trial of the young wines, it is ascertained how they will eventually turn out. Such as go wrong are withdrawn from the store, and shipped off at a low price for appropriation by indiscriminating consumers in a foreign market. First-class and the rest remain for further treatment, their rearing and perfecting being a work of many years. Sherry thus carefully and skilfully matured, when ten to twelve years old, is worth from 50 to 80 guineas per butt in the bodega, each butt containing about 52 dozen bottles. Add to this first cost the various local and fiscal charges, freight, commission, and merchant's profit, and the high prices demanded for wines so select will hardly be thought unreasonable. The real secret of getting a supply of high-class Sherry is, to pay the best price in the best market, and then to keep it in a good cellar for some years before it is brought to table. Precious, however, as this costly beverage might be in the estimation of English consumers, the genuine Spaniard, we repeat, neither drinks nor likes it; he abjures equally its artificial sweetness and its borrowed strength. This well-known fact receives further confirmation from the observations of a recent Iberian tourist, who, writing from Xeres de la Frontera in the autumn of 1868, helps to dispel some of the illusions to which distance often lends enchantment.

"One of the many disappointments," he pathetically remarks, "to which travellers are subjected in the course of their wanderings is, that as soon as they arrive at a place hitherto known to them only by its reputation for something of surpassing excellence, edible or potable, so

soon do they discover that the article in question is not to be found there at all ; or at most, is procurable only at an exorbitant price, and of inferior quality. In some particular spots of such adventitious renown the productions identified with their names are not even known by the inhabitants,—that is, as specialities by which they have gained honour and repute. That such things exist the natives may, or may not, be aware ; but that their confection or growth has any thing to do with the place from which they are named, does not seem to be a necessary consequence of their nomenclature. Not to mention the numerous instances that may be advanced of this curious fact, I will confine myself to the renowned Xeres de la Frontera, which is about the last place in the world where the man who loves good Sherry should call for that wine in any hotel in the town. I thought I had drunk of the deepest cup of humiliation in the way of Sherry whilst I was a denizen of the *Fonda de Londres* at Seville, where the liquor bearing that name was a miraculous compound of fire and water ; but I find that I was mistaken. There is a yet more deadly draught to be purchased at the *Fonda de Jerez* in this town. Moreover, one has the proud privilege of paying 6s. 1d. per bottle for it,—a price for which honest cheering Sherry may, I believe, be had at any time within the limits of a certain tight little island. Yet there *is* Sherry to be found in Xeres,—Sherry that makes a man smack his lips and wink joyfully.”

One of the driest species of Sherry wine Spain produces is Amontillado, remarkable also for its delicacy, limpidity, and high flavour. The peculiar ethereal characteristic that marks this wine seems to be capricious in its origin, and is not easily accounted for. It cannot be produced as a natural matter of course, or reckoned upon with any promise of certainty, inasmuch as out of fifty butts made at the same vineyard, under the same circumstances, and with the same species of grape, probably only two or three will turn out to be wine of this specific character ; and as the quantity obtained is necessarily very limited, it commands a proportionately higher price than other kinds. The theory is, that owing to the presence or admission of atmospheric air into the cask, a partial oxydation of the alcohol ensues, whereby an ethereal substance called aldehyde, or œnanthic ether, which is intermediate between alcohol and acetic acid, has been evolved, and this result is considered by

M. Maumené of real importance, as regards both flavour and taste. A great peculiarity is, that only fine, *ripe*, and *naturally* strong alcoholic wines develope this œnanthic flavour and bouquet, which is invariably attended by a vinous efflorescence called wine-flowers, or flowers of wine, which appear to be endued with the power of eating up, so to speak, the alcohol, and converting it into ether, which never turns to vinegar. Thus there is Amon-tillado, and Amontillado *posada*, or wine passed or gone beyond the Amontillado character and flavour. On the other hand, poor, thin, and alcoholically weak wines, under certain conditions, generate an acetous growth or vinegar-plant, which soon converts the wine into vinegar. Their respective developements, too, are essentially different ; for whilst the wine-plant floats, grows, dies, and then falls to the bottom, the wine all the time continuing perfectly bright, the vinegar-plant renders the wine, on the slightest movement, cloudy and discoloured. The Soleras, so called, are the fine old mother wines, which by age, care, and attention have acquired both fulness of body and concentrated aroma : they are much in use for toning, and imparting a deeper colour to other growths. Fine pure Sherry is of a rich tint naturally, but in order to meet the fastidious and conventional notions among the English, "pale old Sherry" must be had, and colour is chemically discharged at the expense of delicate aroma. Dark brown Sherry does not derive its full tint immediately from the grapes of which it is made. The paler kinds are either browned with burnt sugar, or by an addition of the old mother wine, or of Sherry boiled down till it has acquired a deep tinge. For fine Sherry one of the two last-named methods only is admissible. When wines are browned with sugar, a disagreeable after-flavour always hangs on the palate, which is not the case where the other modes are used. The ever-increasing imports of low-priced white wines, vended under the abused name of Sherry, bear melancholy witness to the systematic and pernicious adulteration now unblushingly pursued.

"It is shown by overwhelming evidence," asserts Dr. Thudichum, in a popular lecture *On Wines*, "that the assertion so frequently made to

screen the true nature of sugared and brandied wines is untrue. Sherry is thus sweetened, and coloured, and brandied in order to cover the natural defects of its taste ; and no Sherry of any claim to quality is ever sugared or coloured, because the makers know very well that pale, dry wine with the least possible amount of alcohol is far more valuable than any such cooked and drugged, coloured, sweet, and hot liquids. The wines in Jerez are all plastered ; but the common kinds are not only plastered, but sulphured in addition. This process somewhat retards the process of fermentation,—in warm weather one, in cold weather two days. . . . The object of sulphuring is said to be, to prevent the wine from running into the acetous state ; but if this remedy saves the liquor from becoming acetified, it, on the other hand, entails its being heavily brandied, and the bodega-holders of Jerez cannot clarify their wines without raising their alcoholic strength to 40 per cent. of proof spirit.”—*Journal of the Society of Arts*.

The white and the sweet varieties are those chiefly known to foreigners ; but the red wines of the interior, properly managed, would prove equal if not superior to most others, both in quality and agreeable character. The *vins du pays* consumed by the natives are not the white rich sorts, nor the dry Xeres, but very excellent red wines, though they are too often deteriorated by the carelessness observed in their fabrication. Those raised far from the coast are generally kept in skins, as being easier both for store and carriage. From this cause they are often so tainted with the pitchy taste and the odour of the undressed hide, as to be hardly drinkable by a foreigner at all. The inland growths, however, are stout, and of an agreeable flavour, and when the political and social condition of the country shall have changed for the better, and the means and facility of transit enlarged, it will be seen that Spain, with her sunny climate, fertile soil, and improving process, can furnish vintages that will excel the produce of most other countries. The wine, nevertheless, which forms the bulk of even the better class Sherries imported into England is of the third quality only. In its natural state it is sound, of a pale greenish yellow hue, has no special character, and is often blended with poor white wine from inferior districts. When designed for shipment it is sweetened and flavoured to disguise its deficiencies of taste,

and coloured to palm it off on the buyer as old and matured. This constitutes the conventional Sherry in common consumption, as served at taverns and restaurants, provided at public dinners, and figuring prominently on the wine-cartes of the majority at 6s. the bottle. The finer vintages, and some of the natural varieties are, doubtless, of a different character; but even these are plastered, strengthened, and subject to other like manipulations not conducive to health.

The chief characteristics of Spanish wines are strength, aroma, and durability, and the vine is cultivated throughout the peninsula. In Catalonia, where the land is propitious, the plains are carefully nurtured, and the highest spots accessible are planted with vines. Such is the fondness and industry of the people for this branch of husbandry, that wherever there is a break in the cliff with a few feet of surface—a mere ledge, to which there is no other mode of access than being let down with a rope, even there the vine is raised. The wines of this province are substantial, rich, spirituous, and abundant, some thousand pipes of which are annually shipped to England, where it is much in use for blending with others of less strength, and a large quantity disposed of as Catalan or Spanish port. A choice white variety, grown in this district, called Sitgas, is a fine Malmsey, nearly equal to Malaga. The country round Tarragona is almost wholly covered with vineyards, and notwithstanding a pernicious system of negligent manufacture, the wines here are of a very tolerable quality. Mataro, also, has some productive vines, but the same careless management prevailing, the natural qualities are greatly impaired. The vicinity of Figueras is diligently cultivated, even to the base of the Pyrenees; but this vintage is known more for its strength than fine flavour. The wine of the Priory, which is reckoned the best of all the Catalonian growths, is produced on hills of loose argillaceous schist. Many of the vineyards of Arragon are planted in the same kind of soil, and chiefly with red grapes, which yield an excellent *vino tinto*. The produce of this province is very considerable, possessing both strength and flavour, the best of which is made at Vittoria.

The wine-districts of New Castile are equally prolific, nor must the claims of La Mancha, rendered famous as the seat and birth-place of the renowned Don Quixote, be overlooked :—

“ There is no place in all Spain,” writes one, speaking from personal observation in days long past, “ more famous for good wine than Ste. Clemente de la Mancha, nor is it anywhere sold cheaper ; for as it is only an inland town, and the people temperate to a proverb, great plenty and a small vend must consequently make it cheap. The wine here is so famous, that most of the doors of the wine-houses in Madrid had written over them *Vino Sainte Clemente*. As for the temperance of the people, I must say that, notwithstanding those two excellent qualities of good and cheap, I never saw, all the three years I was there, any one person overcome with drinking. It is true there may be a reason, and a politic one, assigned for that abstinence ; which is this,—that if any man, upon any occasion, should be brought in as an evidence against you, if you can prove that he was ever drunk, it will invalidate his whole testimony. I could not but think this a grand improvement upon the Spartans, who made their slaves purposely drunk to show their youth the folly of the vice ; but they never reached to that noble height of laying a penalty upon the aggressor, or of discouraging a voluntary impotence of reason, by a disreputable impotence of interest. The Spaniard, therefore, in my opinion, in this exceeds the Spartan as much as a natural beauty exceeds one procured by art ; for though shame may somewhat influence a few, terror is of force to deter all. A man may shake hands with shame, but interest, says another proverb, will never lie. A wise institution, therefore, doubtless is this of the Spaniard, but such as I fear will never take place in Germany, Holland, France, or Great Britain.”—*Memoirs of a Cavalier*.

At Manzanares, situate in the same province, the much-esteemed Val de Peñas is made. This is a red wine, grown on rocky or stony ground, whence its name of *valley of stones*. The Castilians rate it very highly, but as it is rarely transported otherwise than in skins, it is seldom tasted in its genuine purity except on the spot. It is rich, full-bodied, and racy, and is said to be stouter than Port before it is fortified with brandy. The red blood of this “ valley of stones ” issues with such abundance, remarks Mr. Ford, that quantities of old wine are often thrown away for the want of skins, jars, and casks into which to place the new. It is the produce of the Burgundy vine transplanted into Spain. The

wine when taken to distant places is mostly adulterated, and however much is pretended to be sold in London as pure and genuine, nothing is more difficult, if not impossible, than to procure it there. The wines of Montilla, from the neighbouring province of Cordova, rank among the finest produce of Spain, and are highly prized, both at home and abroad, for their qualities of body, excellence, and purity.

The town of Beni Carlos, in Valencia, also supplies in considerable quantity a strong and full-flavoured red wine, which is exported largely to France, expressly to mingle with Claret for England. The capital of Valencia itself has always been considered a fine city; but it richly deserves a brighter epithet, since it is a common saying among the Spaniards, that "the pleasures of Valencia would make a Jew forget Jerusalem." It is sweetly situated in a very beautiful plain, and within half a league of the Mediterranean sea. Blessed with a perpetual spring, it never wants for any of the fragrances of nature, always has something to delight the most curious eye, and is famous to a proverb for handsome women. Valencia, moreover, is the seat of a bishopric, and besides its magnificent cathedral and other ecclesiastical structures, contains a spacious and very splendid convent of the Dominican fraternity.

"Struck by its magnitude," remarks a highly gifted author of the last century, "no less than by the grandeur of the architecture, I obtained permission to enter, and was courteously shown over much of the building. My attendant then brought me into a fair and large cloister, and with him I took several turns around this delicious place. In the centre was a small but pretty grove of orange and lemon trees: those bore fruit, ripe, and green, and flowers altogether on one tree; and their fruit was so large and perfect, and their blossoms so transcendently odoriferous, that all I had seen of the like kind in England could comparatively pass only for beauty in epitome, or nature imitated in waxwork. Many beevies, also, of pretty little singing-birds, with their cheerful notes, added not a little to my delight. In short, in my life I never knew or found three of my senses at once so exquisitely gratified."—*De Foe*.

Paxarete, a rich and luscious Malmsey, made on the site of an ancient monastery of that name near Xeres, is exceeding costly, as it is much used in the rearing and maturation of young

Sherries ; and the muscadine varieties of Fuencaral, near Madrid, and of Peralta, in Navarre, present delicate dessert wines highly agreeable to some palates. Manzanilla, a favourite vintage with the Spaniards, is made near San Lucar. Grown on a free sandy soil, it is lighter and cheaper than Sherry. It is of a pale straw colour, and is exceptionally wholesome. By all classes of the people this wine is equally esteemed, as it strengthens the system without heat or inebriation, like the stronger produce of richer districts. It is remarkably dry, slightly bitter, and when well matured is much commended by the faculty in this country for its invaluable dietetic properties. Alicante produces an excellent red wine, which ripens by age into one of the very first order; but this town is noted most for its *vino tinto*, a red sort in high local favour, being both strong and sweet. It comes from the *tintilla* grape: like the wine of Cyprus, it is said to possess healing qualities, and to be efficacious as an external remedy for wounds. The products of Valencia and Alicante, being rich in colour and full of body, are also employed in simulating Port wine, the casks for which are made to resemble Oporto pipes in size as well as appearance. A very large proportion of these wines, as already observed, find their way to France for the purpose of blending with weaker growths.

Near Alicante reservoirs for the irrigation of the vine grounds have been constructed on a grand scale. About twelve miles from the town a tank is formed by damming up a valley with an embankment 240 feet high, and 40 thick. This supplies water for an entire year. Others, though of smaller dimensions, are established in suitable localities, which makes the cultivation of the vine in the south an expensive operation, on account of the climate being over dry. So much felt, indeed, is this in some districts, and so oppressive was the drought and abundant the vintage in the summer of 1858, that at Huesca, in Arragon, an extensive proprietor considered it would have been easier and cheaper to irrigate his vineyards with wine than with water. At Aranda del Duero, in Old Castile, wine would also seem to be occasionally cheaper than water; for an English gentleman of veracity, travelling through that province, witnessed some brick-

layers at work mixing their mortar with wine instead of water ; and this, we are informed, was no unusual occurrence, as there were several instances of houses in that town having been built with mortar prepared in this way. The town-hall of Toro, in the province of Leon, is likewise said to have been erected with mortar slaked with wine, and for a similar reason.*

No province of Spain is without its vintage ; but those of the north,—Galicia, the Asturias, Navarre, and Biscay,—are but little known beyond their immediate localities. In the latter district five or six different grapes are often grafted on one stock, which renders the produce very dubious as to character or quality. But it is ever in the lovely and fertile region of Andalusia that the wines most esteemed by foreigners are made. The mountains round Malaga are clothed from the valley depths to the summits with vines, and the little habitations of the peasantry peep out romantically on the acclivities around them. Many of the plantations are located at a great height from the level of the sea, where the earth for the roots requires to be very carefully secured. Wines both sweet and luscious are made in the vicinity of the city, and no less than ten thousand presses are said to be kept at work during the vintage in that and the neighbouring districts. The Malaga, usually so called, is always mingled with a portion of wine burnt a little in the boiling, to impart its peculiar flavour. This sort, obtained from a white grape, is very powerful, and has been long in high repute. For the mountain wines the grapes are pressed when somewhat riper than for the drier kinds. The “Lagrima,” made from the droppings of very ripe grapes, suspended for that purpose without undergoing any pressure, is a luscious liqueur, obtained from the large muscatel grape. In the hilly district called Axarquia, the vine is extensively cultivated, and such is the benignity of the climate, that it gives three separate harvests of grapes. The first occurs in June, and furnishes the muscatel raisins,—the bloom and the lexias, which are exported as such. The two vintage harvests take

* Both these anecdotes rest on the authority of Mr. Lumley, her Majesty's secretary of the Spanish Legation, as given in his official report to the Foreign-office on the commerce of Spain.—*Vide Parliamentary Report,—Secretaries of Embassies, 1860.*

place in September and October. It is wonderful to observe the fruitfulness of the soil of the Axarquía. Under a vivifying sun it seems given up to the insect and wild plant ; earth and air teem with life, and there is a solemn grandeur where Nature is busy at her mighty creative work, heedless of the presence or absence of man. Wherever the ground is unoccupied by the vine, the prickly pear luxuriates, and feeds the cochineal insect ; while olives, almonds, figs, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and even the sugar-cane, flourish in profusion under that glorious sky. Eight millions of pounds of muscatel and bloom raisins, and thirty thousand arrobas * of bloom and lexias in casks, were exported from Malaga, the produce of one season, with no less than 20,000 jars of grapes ; yet the make of wine, notwithstanding, sustained no diminution. The muscatel grape is extensively cultivated round Malaga, but is not prolific in the interior. The district which produces it does not extend more than three leagues along the coast, and about two leagues inland. The chief produce of this province is white, but there is a red wine of the richer class, of a sweet yet tart taste, called Tintilla, and Tinto di Rota, *anglicé* Tent. It is made about five leagues from Cadiz, of a grape said to be tinted throughout, and is generally used as a stomachic. There is also a wine, or ratifia, flavoured with cherries, called Guindre, whence its name. The small town of Yepes, surrounded by vine-lands, is famous for a very delicious white wine. The plantations around Malaga produce from 30,000 to 40,000 butts per annum, the Americans taking the largest portion of the exports. The English consul, in an official report, states that whilst it requires ten butts of French wine to make one butt of brandy, three of Malaga will yield the same quantity of alcohol. Prices vary, but secondary qualities realize high rates. As much as 200*l.* has been paid for a cask of very old prime wine. In more recent years the export of this vintage has notably diminished, the vinous growths of Lisbon and Marsala superseding the demand in the English market. Nevertheless, planting and cultivation of the muscatel grape along

* The arroba of Malaga is equal to 4·186 gallons, old measure.

the coast have advanced of late with rapid strides, raisins now forming the great staple of Malaga trade.

Chacoli, in Biscay, produces a second-rate wine, to obtain which the vintagers engraft five or six different vines on the same stalk. Most parts of Biscay abound in these vines, which border the high roads, growing to the height of three or four feet. A vicious practice prevails in this district, by which the wine is sold at a fixed price as determined by the police; and until the whole product of the vintage is disposed of, no other growths are permitted to be brought into the province. Hence the sole object of the cultivators is to secure a large quantity of wine without any regard to quality, and "Chacoli" has become a by-word in Spain. In the manufacture ripe and unripe grapes are mixed together, and the produce is thus rendered good for little; whereas the fruit of this province would, with proper care, produce a wine little inferior to the Champagne of France.

The Balearic isles of MAJORCA and MINORCA furnish wines of fair quality, but the vintage is not treated in the most judicious manner, the grapes being fermented for two or three weeks in deep stone cisterns, and added to at repeated intervals, so that the operation is frequently checked in its progress, and seldom fully completed. The liquor is drawn off into large tonels, and there the secondary fermentation, as might be expected, is often so violent as to burst the casks, though made of olive staves four inches thick, and bound with hoops proportionately strong. In Majorca the wines made near Palma are accounted the best, and there is a very good red variety known as Aleyor. The latter island produces a muscadine wine called Pollentia.

Ireland seems to have nurtured an early predilection for the wines of Spain. From a remote period Galway was a famous trading port with that country, and its merchants are said to have supplied nearly all Ireland with wine. The municipal records witness that in the year 1615 "upwards of 1,200 tuns of Spanish wine were landed here, for account of the merchants of Galway." And it is further stated by an ancestor of lord Kenmare, that in 1584 the yearly imports of wine into Munster

averaged 1,000 tuns, in exchange for hides at the rate of fifty skins for one tun; wine and *aqua-vitæ*, owing to the excessive scarcity of money, even in "great chieftains' houses," being then only obtainable in barter for their peltries at the nearest seaport towns. So empty was the Dublin exchequer in the year 1536, that there was nothing available for the repair of a disaster which had befallen the castle save the appropriation of 1,000 cows recently imposed as a fine on O'Reilly; and their value was earnestly demanded for rebuilding the great hall, which had long served as the court of justice. At this period of Irish history nearly all the nobility lived almost moneyless, and, with their households, were maintained by victuals levied on their clans. Thus, lord St. Leger received from his barony in Kilkenny no more rent, "in honey, corn, butter, cattle, and cash," than to the value of four nobles and four pence yearly; and when he wanted a pipe of wine, he most probably had to send seven or eight fat cows to the county town to pay for it. So oppressive, indeed, had the dearth become in 1552, as we find recorded in the national archives,—attributed by the politico-economists of the period to a wanton debasement of the current coinage and the unrestricted export of native produce,—that "the measure of corn that was wont to be 2s. or 3s. is now 30s.; the cow that had been worth 6s. 8d. sold for 40s.; and the tun of Gascon wine, that used to be 7*l.* or 8*l.*, now realized 24*l.*; and yet of all things there is a reasonable plenty."* To remedy this general impoverishment, the governing authorities in their wisdom prohibited the exportation of wool, butter, tallow, linen yarn, and other industrial materials, on the plea that "such avoidance encourageth idleness." Holinshed, notwithstanding this great dearth, asserts in his *Chronicles*, that "the great Shane O'Niel, Gaelic king of Ulster, and the strenuous opponent of Elizabeth, usually kept in his cellars at Dundrum 200 tuns of wine, of which as well as usquebaugh† he drank copiously, and to such a degree, that his attendants were often obliged to bury

* *Calendar of the State Papers of Ireland*, 1509–1573. Published by authority, 1860.

† Usquebaugh, both in the Irish and Erse dialects, signifies 'water of life,' from *uisge*, water, and *bagh*, life: hence the modern term *whisky*.

him in the earth skin deep, until the heating effects of intoxication had abated."

In Spain the effects of the *oïdium* were severely felt throughout the kingdom, and in some districts the failure was so complete, that the growers, for several seasons, were unable to pay any rents at all. It first appeared in 1852. Vines near the coast, and on the banks of rivers or damp marshy sites, suffered most; but those on higher soils, and even in the mountains, did not always escape. The produce of the vineyards during the intensity of the malady was reduced on the average 25 per cent. of an ordinary year: on the coast it was only one quarter of the usual yield, whilst in parts of Catalonia 90 per cent. of the crop was lost, and in Biscay it was altogether destroyed. Of the several provinces of Spain, Arragon seems to have suffered the least. Notwithstanding the generally received opinion that second-class wines will not bear a sea voyage, since the havoc committed by the grape-blight in adjoining countries a large export trade of a seemingly permanent character sprung up, to the great satisfaction and profit of the Spanish grower.





SECTION VIII.

“ Hail, Burgundy ! thou juice divine,
Inspirer of my song ;
The praises gi'ed to other wine,
To thee alone belong.

“ Of poignant wit and rosy charms
Thou can'st the power improve ;
Care of its sting thy balm disarms,
Thou noblest gift of Jove.”

Popular Song, temp. Q. Anne.

The Wines of France.

PROMINENT among the wine-producing countries of Europe stands the favoured and fertile region of France, whose whole expanse, from the borders of the Rhine to the base of the Pyrenees, presents a succession of prolific vineyards, where the most agreeable and delicate wines are grown in great variety and profusion. The ground contains every description of strata that is most congenial to the vine ; the surface, diversified with ever-recurring and gently swelling elevations, abounds in favourable aspects ; the difference of temperature in the several districts occasions numberless distinctive shades in the character and quality of the fruit ; and these bountiful gifts of Nature have been greatly enhanced by the industry and skill of her active people. The period at which the vine first found its way into France is involved in much uncertainty. It is generally supposed that it reached Europe from the East, and was introduced into Gallia Narbonensis by the Phoceans, who, at a very remote date, founded a city at Marseilles. Some ascribe its introduction to a Tuscan emigrant ; Cæsar and other Roman authorities, with more probability, advert to it as a mere commercial transaction. Whatever may have been the true period of its arrival,

it appears to have found a congenial resting-place, for it flourished vigorously, and became sufficiently fruitful to form an article of early export. The wines of Narbonne, of Vienne, and of Marseilles are mentioned by Roman writers, and it is fair to presume that, except among the northern Celtic tribes, wine in their day was largely in use.

From the testimony of Strabo, and other early historians, it cannot be doubted that the climate of ancient Gaul was too frigid to produce either wine or oil, and that beer and mead constituted the aboriginal beverages. We have it further recorded in the writings of Gibbon, that the splendid capital of Paris was originally confined to the small island in the midst of the river Seine. A forest overspread its northern side, but the severity of the climate was tempered by the influence of the ocean; and, with some precautions derived from experience, the vine and fig-tree were successfully cultivated. In remarkable winters, however, the Seine was deeply frozen; and the huge pieces of ice that floated down the stream might be compared by an Asiatic to the blocks of white marble which were extracted from the quarries of Phrygia. . . . To the north of Cevennes the seasons are described as so inclement, that it was thought impossible for grapes to ripen in those parts. Yet the retarding hand of tyranny and oppression, which usually characterized Roman domination in their distant colonies, was yet more severely felt by a hard-faring and toil-worn community than unpropitious seasons. The year 92 of the Christian era, although favourable for the vintager, proved very unproductive to cereal crops, and the dearth that followed was severely felt by the Roman community. Domitian, the reigning emperor, hastily inferred that the calamity was mainly attributable to an immoderate increase in the number of vineyards and a growing taste for their culture, that caused the tillage of corn-land to be proportionately neglected. Influenced by this erroneous assumption he issued an edict, directing that in the larger portion of the provinces of the empire half the plantations should be destroyed; whilst the cultivation of the vine being by the same decree entirely prohibited in Spain, Gaul, and Britain, it was there unsparingly

uprooted, and for nearly two hundred years afterwards the grape continued a "forbidden fruit." But traditionary love of its culture had sunk deeply into the hearts of the people, and the rescript that once more restored the smiling vineyard, and permitted them to quaff its generous juice, was welcomed to the hearts of millions with unbounded delight. Progressive increase marked their patient labours, and by the fourth century the propagation of the vine had again made considerable advance, both in Aquitaine and on the banks of the Saône. It is curious enough, and well deserving mention, that nearly fifteen centuries afterwards, viz. in 1566, a somewhat similar restrictive policy was adopted in France by Charles IX., when the kingdom, in consequence of the bad harvest of that year, experienced the evils of a scarcity that exposed the population to great privations. This visitation was ascribed by the king and his advisers to the over-cultivation and a too great abundance of vines, and, like Domitian, he at once proscribed them. By a royal *ordonnance* it was decreed, that in each commune vine-plantations should be curtailed and confined to one-third of their former ground, and the other two-thirds appropriated to the purposes of arable or pasture husbandry,—an edict, the severity of which, ten years afterwards, was modified in some degree by his brother and successor, Henry III.

Although the intensity of the Gallic winters was almost proverbial among the antients, the obstacles they interposed were in time overcome, and there is reason to believe that the vineyards of Burgundy are as old as the reign of the Antonines. The orator Eumenius (*Panegy.* viii. 6) speaks of vines in the territory of Autun as decayed through age, the first plantation of which was altogether forgotten. The Pagus Arebignus is supposed to be the district of Beaune, celebrated to the present day for one of the first growths of Burgundy. It is pretty certain, however, that ameliorating influences were in early operation: the extensive woodlands were gradually thinned, and the marshy districts more or less effectually drained. With the advancement of agriculture the soil and climate gradually

improved,* and it is on record that "the year 1460 was so prodigiously fruitful throughout the whole domain of France, and bore such plenteous crops of corn, that, at the very dearest period, a quarter of wheat was sold for only twenty-four Parisian sols ; but there was a great scarcity of fruit, and as for the vines, there was so little wine that they scarcely realized a hogshead to every acre of ground ; but the quality was extraordinarily good, and that which grew in the fat vineyards round Paris was sold very dear, and bore the price of ten or eleven crowns a hogshead."—*P. de Comines*.

The inhabitants of the more northern departments soon followed the example of their southern neighbours in the culture and utilization of the grape: the banks of the Cher, Marne, and Moselle became richly mantled with vines, and their rising fame, attracting the cupidity of rude contiguous tribes, formed, it is said, a leading motive for their frequent irruptions. From this period of returning prosperity the onward progress of the grape-vine was uninterrupted and successful. Patient industry and increasing skill gradually developed better modes, both of training and treatment, and the acquisition of a useful variety, or a new species occasionally, rewarded superior enterprise and vigilance.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, during the sanguinary wars for the possession of the Holy Land, some of the crusaders on their return brought with them from Corinth, Cyprus, and other places rich muscat vines, till then unknown in France. The plants were first set at the foot of the Pyrenees, and thence came the rich Frontignan, Lunel, and Rivesaltes sweet or luscious wines. The introduction of other varieties was subsequently carried out to an incalculable extent, but for the preferable growths we are still indebted to the ancient provinces of Dauphiny, Champagne, Burgundy, and the Bordelais. The wines of the northern departments are sound and useful, yet with few exceptions they are of an inferior order, and the crops seldom exceed the wants of the resident population ; whilst

* A like amelioration of temperature was manifest from clearing and draining land in the settlements of North America.

those of Languedoc and other divisions in the south are remarkable as well for strength as their superior flavour, and, as sweet wines, some of them rank very high. Although this latter description is obtainable in abundance from other climes, and some may be thought stouter and richer, yet none can outvie, for bright limpidity and luscious fragrance, or be less cloying, than those of France, where also originated the *mousseux* or effervescent class, of which Champagne stands the peerless sample. But it is in their more purely vinous properties that French wines excel those of most other countries, and so multitudinous are the varieties, that it is affirmed there is no growth in the world which might not find a counterpart in some one or another of her products, ever skilfully fabricated according to approved scientific maxims. But as the race is not always to the swift, nor the battle to the strong, so the song of praise was not always attuned in favour of French wines. To an English palate the lighter kinds may not, on first acquaintance, prove so relishing or agreeable as the stronger brandied wines to which it has been most accustomed; they, however, in reality impart not only a cheerfulness and exhilaration,—a kind of easy elastic buoyancy entirely different from what attends the use of spirituous heavier wines,—but have, when taken largely, a much less injurious effect on the constitution. By a stranger they should at first be drunk sparingly, for, on account of their nascent acidity, a free use of them at the outset frequently occasions considerable derangement of the digestive functions; but when persons become sufficiently accustomed to them, they constitute a pleasant and wholesome beverage.* For general use the ordinary French wines, the natural product of the country well and carefully made, are to be preferred, particularly when saved from the admixture of any factitious spirit. To persons of gouty and rheumatic temperament, Bordeaux wines are esteemed of special service, as they neither turn sour themselves, nor do they cause acidity in other articles of food,—always remembering that they are beverages, and not drams.

The French arrange their wines in three classes,—common,

* Dr. J. H. Holdsworth's *Mem. of a Tour in France*.

ordinary, and fine. The two former they drink from tumblers, as Englishmen take beer, after the addition of water at discretion ; ordinary wine-glasses are used for the finer dry wines, so much relished for their aroma and piquancy, and the choicest of these are always costly. The estimation and current prices attendant on any given sorts may be occasionally capricious or extravagant, but the market value is ordinarily regulated by the proportion and perfection of the innate or reputed properties peculiar to their several growths: thus, the Burgundy and Bordeaux are appreciated for their superlative flavour and bouquet ; while the qualities sought in the produce of the Midi are body, colour, and strength. The plains in the northern and western portions of the kingdom yield light and generally inferior wines, the pure alcohol in which ranges from 12 to 16 per cent. The finest vintages of Bordeaux seldom exceed that strength, but on the sides of the high mountain elevations that run through the east and south of France, from Dijon to the Pyrenees, at whose base flow the waters of the Saône, the Rhône, and the Mediterranean, the vine flourishes in great abundance and luxuriance, and its fruit, attaining a perfect maturity, secretes a larger portion of sugar, and produces, consequently, wine of much strength. First in this region are the Burgundy growths, which are stouter than those raised further north, and they, in their turn, yield in that respect to the product of warmer localities ; whilst at the southern extremity, next the eastern Pyrenees, where the sun pours down an almost tropical heat, and where the sea breezes come charged with refreshing moisture, all the requisites for the developement of the higher qualities of the grape seem to be happily concentrated, and the wines here are high-flavoured, potent, and rich.

Prior to the commencement of the eighteenth century it will hardly be disputed, that with the English consumer the wines of France held an undivided preference. By the provisions of a commercial compact between England and Portugal negotiated at this period, and memorable even to the present day as "the Methuen treaty," differential duties were conceded in favour of the latter country, which brought forward its staple produce

more prominently and advantageously than before, and gradually engendered a belief that French wines were less adapted to our climate than those of the southern peninsula. Great repugnance, however, was evinced towards so sudden and radical a change in a fond and deep-rooted opinion: the wits of the period poured forth all the vials of their wrath in vain protestations; the poet and the dramatist levelled their sharpest sarcasms at "the heavy beverage;" nor were political cabals wanting to contend in open resistance against the alleged churlish heresy, and the scandalous innovation was openly and unsparingly denounced. Alexander Cunningham, a grave contemporary historian, remarks, (vol. ii. 220,) that "It was strange to see how much the desire of French wine, and the dearness of it, alienated many men from the duke of Marlborough's friendship." The hard drinkers complained that they were poisoned by Port, and those formed almost a party: Dr Aldrich, dean of Christchurch, surnamed "the priest of Bacchus," Dr. Ratcliff, general Churchill, &c., "and all their bottle companions, many physicians, and great numbers of the lawyers and inferior clergy, and, in fine, the loose women too, were united together in the faction against the duke of Marlborough." In vain was remonstrance or petition. Legislators were obdurate, and the clamorous took nothing by their motion. Rhymsters and poetasters strove to fill the vacuum, and their labours serve to swell the curiosities of literature contained in the Roxburghe Collection of famous memory, now in the safe keeping of the British Museum. Among the popular ballads distinctive of this period may be noticed—

The Claret-Drinker's Song.

"Wine the most powerfull'st of all things on earth,
Which stifles all sorrowful cares in their birth;
No treason in it harbours, nor can vengeful hate
Creep in where it bears sway to damage the State.

"I mind not the members and makers of laws,
Let 'em sit or prorogue as her Majesty please;
Let 'em dam us to woolen, I'll never repine
At my usage when dead, so alive I have wine:
Yet oft in my drink I can hardly forbear
To blame them for making my Claret so dear.

"I mind not grave asses who idly debate
 About rights and successions, the trifles of State.
 We've a good King already, and he deserves laughter
 That will trouble his head with who shall come after.
 Come ! here's to his health ; and I wish he may be
 As free from all care and all trouble as we.

* * * * *

The Second Part.

"What care I how leagues with Hollanders go,
 Or intrigues 'twixt Mousieurs or Dons for to know ;
 What concerns it my drinking if cities be sold,
 If the conqueror takes them by storming or gold ;
 From whence Claret comes is the place that I mind,
 And when the fleet's coming I pray for a wind.

"And a health to good-fellows shall still be my care,
 And whilst wine it holds out we no bumpers will spare.
 I'll subscribe to petitions for nothing but Claret,
 That this may be cheap here's both my hands for it.

"No doubt 'tis the best of all drinks, or so soon
 It ne'er had been chose by the Man in the Moon,*
 Who drinks nothing else, both by night and by day,
 But Claret, brisk Claret, as most people say ;
 Whilst glasses brim full to the stars they go round,
 Which makes them shine bryter with red juice still crown'd.

"For all things in nature doth live by good drinking,
 And he's a bull fool, and not worthy my thinking,
 That does not prefer it before all the treasure
 The Indies contain, or the Sea without measure :
 'Tis the life of good-fellows, for without it they pine,
 When nought can revive 'em but brimmers of wine.

.

"Then here's a good health to all those that love peace,
 Let plotters be damn'd, and all quarrels now cease ;
 Let me but have wine, and I care for no more,
 'Tis a treasure sufficient,—there's none can be poor
 That has Bacchus to's friend, for he laughs at all harm,
 Whilst with high-proofed Claret he does himself arm."

Printed for J. Jordan, at the Angel, in Guilt-spur-street.

* In allusion to the silly nursery jingle,—

"The Man in the Moon drinks Claret,
 But he is a dull Jack-a-dandy ;
 Would he know a sheep's head from a carrot,
 He should learn to drink Cider and Brandy."

"Such tributes to its merits as this," remarks a recent writer, "are as thick in the literature of that day as poppies in a wheat-field in the month of July. I could cite scores of them. . . . But has any one ever met with a song or ballad in the praise of Port? I never did, for with the Methuen treaty the poetry of that wine received the *coup-de-grâce*. No poet *could* write in praise of Port, although, for the sake of a rhyme to 'merry,' some of the smaller fry of poetasters tried their 'prentice hands on the glorification of Sherry. Yet it is strange how firm a hold Port has taken on the British consumer, and how persistent the prejudice against Claret, as something weak, poor, thin, and acid, continues to be. Unless among those domiciled on the Continent, there is scarcely one middle-class Englishman in ten who knows the difference between Bordeaux and Burgundy; and I cannot myself even make up my mind as to which particular wine is the finest and best. Between Château margaux—the queen of all Clarets, and Clos-Vougeot—the king of all Burgundies, it is difficult to decide. Were there no drop of the former left in this wicked world, I should have no hesitation in proclaiming the latter to be king and lord of the vintages; and if otherwise, I should throw up my cap and shout *vivat* for the Margaux château."

At the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, Louis XIV. having covenanted to renounce the cause of the Pretender and the Stuart family, the English government conceded the re-admission of French wines at the same impost as those of Portugal and all other wine-growing countries. The public feeling of the day on this fiscal movement is well expressed in a popular song then current, called *A Pill to purge State Melancholy*, which concludes with the following stanzas:—

- "King Louis is a good-humoured man,
O Lord! who it can deny?
Since he sends such good wine to Queen Anne,
Lest her Majesty's throat should be dry:
- "Lest her Majesty's self should be dry,
And her servants too, I suppose.
There's good reason for it,—for why?
Just look at the Treasurer's nose.
- "Then fill up a bumper, my friends,—
Ingratitude is a foul sin:
Here's peace with old Louis le Grand,
And a health to Monsieur le Vin!"

Whatever may have been the basis on which this national

aversion was founded, there can be no doubt that it was earnestly and extensively felt; yet, apart from the brandy which is infused to give factitious strength to both Port and Sherry, there is no more real ardency in their normal state than belongs to the vintages of France; which, resting as they do solely on their own refreshing and exhilarating properties, would infallibly be spoiled if subjected to similar treatment. Claret especially, which by many is considered weak because it is not heady, and therefore often thought to possess no tonic powers, is, on the contrary, much valued for its dietetic virtues by French physicians, and strongly recommended for its great restorative qualities. The same may be said of Burgundy, no less than of Hermitage, Roussillon, and others; and few will be heard to complain that the sparkling and grateful Champagne ever injured any body's health. The climate of France, indeed, is remarkably well adapted for vinous productions of the highest merit; for wine, to be distinguished for its purity and delicacy, with freedom from any taint or grossness, requires a temperature alike moderate and even: the grape should ripen gradually, and be swelled by the autumnal dews. But it is in the peculiar and congenial native soil that chiefly lies the secret of the great superiority of her products, the strata of the most valued vineyards being dry, gravelly, or sandy, and exempt from that rich loam which engenders a rank and coarser vegetation. Nothing can exemplify this more clearly than the gradations in the character of the different growths of Claret. Beginning with the Margaux district, which is equally calcareous, flinty, and sandy, the wine there raised is remarkable for its fragrant delicacy. As we proceed onwards to St. Julien, we come upon a somewhat stouter wine, though still of a distinguished bouquet. The growths of Pauillac, yet further west, and lying in a rather heavier soil, are fuller in flavour and dark in colour, but at the same time less delicate; while a similar increase of body and tint marks the St. Estèphe, where the land augments in strength and marly richness. Along the Rhône, and in the Burgundy and Champagne provinces, the same differences of soil are

noticeable, with always a similar distinction in the flavour, according to its greater or less degree of fertility.

The cultivation of the vine in France has increased very considerably within the present century, extending latterly not only to lands which by nature are best adapted to that purpose, but also to many where similar favourable conditions of soil and temperature do not exist, the inferior nature of their produce being countervailed by greater abundance, while the more eligible sites and aspects are still reserved for primer growths. The vintager of the present day, chiefly intent on obtaining a large return, has partly abandoned the old system, under which quality was the principal object in view. A benignant exposure is no longer the all-important consideration it formerly was, and the grower prefers a rich soil ensuring an abundant harvest to those poor, light lands, from whence alone the choicest and most high-flavoured wines are more sparingly raised. The application of manure, in former times proscribed by law, is now commonly resorted to, and sometimes carried to excess. Unremitting labour is employed in preparation of the ground; the vines are planted closer together, and the finer species, producing superior qualities in smaller quantities, are neglected. Greater attention, however, is bestowed on their fabrication, the cellars are kept in better order, and the wine is more carefully preserved. The joint influence of these causes has been everywhere felt. In some places the yield has increased by one-tenth, in others by a fifth, a third, a half, and in a few instances double and treble over previous returns. A falling off in quality and a diminution of price has been the natural consequence of so large an augmentation. Leaving finest growths out of the account, and which are confined to very small districts, the quality of the vinous produce of France may be said to have degenerated: it has lost in flavour and aroma what it has gained in fecundity; and the adoption of the new methods of tillage, the introduction of the commoner sorts of grape, and the abuse of manure, have caused the wine to lose much of its pristine superiority and distinctive properties,—the grower seeking his compensation in the sale of

much larger quantities.* Wines, again, of second-rate quality are those which at present are the least profitable to the farmer. Fashion, a change in the public taste, and the extensive subdivision of property have reduced the demand as well as their money value. It is quite certain that the bulk of the cheap Clarets consumed in England, with deep colour, much body, and no perceptible acid flavour, are not the Bordeaux wines they pretend to be; but are simply an admixture of low Spanish Mediterranean growths with the *petits vins rouges* of France, imported here at the rate of a franc and a half the gallon. The choicest kinds, however, will always maintain their supremacy among the wealthier classes, especially in foreign countries, and third-rate wines are freely consumed by the population at large; but the intermediate sorts, being too dear for the latter and not valued by the former, are neglected, and can find no remunerative market.

Large as is the area formed by domains so extensive, three or four districts are alone unfriendly to the grape. The soil, whilst generally fertile, varies considerably, the ground being constituted by different alternations of granitic, calcareous, gravelly, argillaceous, marly, alluvial, and sandy earths. It is on the calcareous land that the finer dry wines are produced. The vines are mostly planted in ranges sufficiently distant to secure to them the sun and air at all times, and the mode of training commonly pursued is the *tige bas*, or low-stem system, the young shoots of the year being tied to stakes from four to five feet in height. The plant is propagated by layers of buds, which are taken up after the vintage, as well as by slips chosen from among the cuttings. Vines from the latter live longest, and bear most fruit; but those from the layers shoot the earliest. The season of the vintage is one of stirring interest and alacrity; the merry groups of peasantry now to be seen in almost every field commence their cheerful labour soon after the sun has dispersed the dew, and if the weather continues fair, the gathering is urged forward with as much rapidity as possible, in order to

* Viscount Chelsea's Report on the Wine-trade in France.—See *Parliamentary Return*,—*Secretaries of Embassies*, 1859.

secure the pressing in one day, which is effected after the usual festive fashion. But it is on the smaller properties, where the vine is intended not so much for commerce as for household use, that the vintage presents its gayest features. In the large and first-class vineyards the work goes on under rigid superintendence, and is as much as possible made a cold matter of business. He who would realize the poetic or traditionary mirth and jollity of the vintage,—the laughing, joking, singing festivals we associate with the harvests of the grape,—must betake him to the multitudinous patches of peasant property, in which neighbour helps neighbour to gather the crop, and upon which whole families labour together, as much for the amusement and merriment, and from hearty fellowship and goodwill, as for any consideration of francs and sous. Here no tight discipline is observed: every one eats as much fruit as he pleases, and rests when he is tired. On these occasions it is that you hear to the best advantage the inspiring songs and choruses of the busy throng, and witness their playful sports and general state of careless hilarity. The vintage under such influences will ever form a scene picturesque and beautiful.

Wine is made in no less than eighty of the departments, and the aggregate quantity raised is very large; whilst the distinctive shades of character and quality, occasioned by variations of site and soil, are minute and innumerable. They are divided into six classes of red, seven of white, and four of *vins de liqueur*, and comprise altogether 250 white and 460 red, besides nine liqueurs. To enumerate the several growths and describe their distinctive peculiarities would be a tiresome task, and of little interest to the general reader. Besides, it should not be readily overlooked, that special statements correct to-day may, independent of changing seasons, be reversed to-morrow; or the fact that a vineyard carrying a more than common reputation is often the very cause of its being lost, through the luring temptation to increase the produce by the use of manures and other stimulating materials, which soon leads to deterioration of quality and former character. By far the larger portion being little appreciated beyond the immediate seat of its production, attention

will be here directed principally to the wines best known to commerce, and in most repute both at home and in foreign countries.

Claret.—Under the denomination of wines of the Gironde, part of ancient Gascony, are included the vintages of the districts in the vicinity of Bordeaux, many leagues in extent, and, of all the produce of France, these are most familiar to foreigners. With a single exception, all the grand red wines of the Gironde are produced in the Médoc district, within the space of some twenty miles along a mere strip of undulating ground bordering the Garonne, and constituting one extensive vineyard cultivated as carefully as a garden. Beyond the incessant labour so bestowed, and the skill exercised in the manufacture of the wine, for the marked superiority of the Haut Médoc vintages and the world-wide renown they have acquired, much is due to the loose, pebbly, and flinty nature of the soil with its ferruginous elements—9 per cent. of iron by analysis; more, possibly, than to the species of grape—principally the cabaret, or any other adventitious circumstance. These wines everywhere else pass under the generic name of *Bordeaux*; but in England they are called Claret, which is either derived, as some suppose, from Clairic, in Gascony, from whence large supplies were formerly imported, or is a corruption of the word *clairer*, signifying such as are red, or rose-coloured. In its integrity, Claret is a mixture of several sorts specially adapted for use in this country, with a small portion of spirits of wine in addition. About thirteen leagues to the north of Bordeaux the Médoc estate commences. It extends along the left bank of the rivers Gironde and Garonne, and comprehends the most celebrated growths of the country, including those of the Château Lafite, renowned alike for its luminous colour, exquisite softness, delicate flavour, and a fragrant bouquet resembling the blended perfume of the almond and the violet; the Château Margaux, a wine which in good seasons has no superior, and scarcely an equal, is generous without potency, refreshes the system without exciting the brain, and evolves a bouquet that hangs on the lips and perfumes the breath; the Château Latour is distinguished from its rivals by greater alcoholicity, a more

pronounced flavour, and a powerful bouquet like unto the odour of almonds and noyau combined ; as well as of the vineyards yielding the secondary wines of St. Julien, Pauillac, St. Estèphe, and some others. It is only through a keen discrimination and careful management of the vines covering the hill-sides along the river banks that the finest wines are secured. They are a truly admirable product those grapes, with their rich perfume, their bright ruby hue, their palatable taste, and mysterious virtue, which impart to the consumer an ineffable sense of comfort,—exhilarating the mind without oppressing the stomach. Too much stress, however, should not be placed on the value of any particular name, as the varying influences of season, temperature, and other accidental causes often occasion the less-esteemed growths to equal, and sometimes even to excel those in greater repute. A remarkable instance of this occurred in the fine vintage of 1815, wherein a *fourth growth* in rank on the Margaux estate so far exceeded all the others in high character, that it became almost priceless. The entire crop was purchased by a merchant of Bordeaux, and after fifteen years in bottle it was still in such perfection as to surpass in a remarkable degree any other Claret ever brought into this country. The seductive bouquet common to all the grand wines of the Gironde, which requires a certain age for its full developement, is thought to be due to an extremely fugitive volatile oil, the elements of which reside in the husks of the grapes. Particular conditions, met with *only* in certain soils and aspects, are requisite to the secretion of this perfume, which rarely exists in wines of a generous character, either because the odour of the alcohol conceals it, or because the long fermentation necessary to decompose all the vegetive extracts causes it to completely disappear.

From the frequent mention of Claret wines by old writers, a large proportion of the best red growths was probably of that description. As long as they were drunk without an admixture of water, it was of little moment whether they were of a purple or rose colour ; but the modern custom of using all the ordinary kinds in a diluted state has led to a change of practice in this respect, and the farmer strives to supply them as high-coloured

as possible. To attain this object the fermentation is protracted, and the principal ingredients tampered with ; the consequence is, that many of these wines, though abounding in body and colour, retain from the beginning the germs of early decay, and the decomposition of the liquor is accelerated, acidity is prematurely engendered, and notwithstanding they might possess considerable stamina, the major part of such wines do not keep well. Still, many French vintages will continue sound for a considerable number of years : Roussillon has been drunk a century old in high perfection. Other kinds prove good when kept fifty or sixty years, particularly such as are grown on the Rhône, in the eastern Pyrenees, in Cahors, in the Gard, and the Var. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, and the Médoc are not so durable, being more delicate, with less body. Respecting the latter it may be useful to explain, that although the term Médoc is sometimes erroneously employed to signify wines of a particular character and quality, it is simply the local name given to plantations situate at the mouth of the river Gironde, where the best wines of the district are produced as well as many of an inferior order, all, however, passing under the general appellation of Médoc wines.

In the Bordelais the culture of the vine is generally conducted in the same manner as in the other parts of France. The vines of this district, grown on hill sides, with a southern aspect, and on gravelly or flinty ground, yield the best wines. Conspicuous among this class are the white vintages of Sauterne, with a reputation extending over a century, and those of Graves, Barsac, Château Yquem, and Carbonnieux. This latter is produced in much abundance : it is distinguished by a peculiar flavour and an agreeable aroma ; is lighter than Sauterne or Preignac ; is less heady, less luscious, but in all respects equally delicate and vinous. The resplendent colour, resembling liquid gold, the exquisite bouquet and delicious flavour of Château Yquem are due, according to chemists' analyses, to the presence of mannite, which has the peculiar faculty of not becoming, in the work of fermentation, transformed into alcohol and carbonic acid. The characteristic properties of this wine are in no degree attributable

to simple accident; on the contrary, the process of its vintage is an extremely complicated and delicate affair. In order to ensure the velvety softness and rich and luscious grandeur that distinguish this wine, the grapes are allowed to dry on the stalks until they become even mouldy in appearance, and thereby attaining a degree of ripeness akin to rottenness. Considerable pressure is requisite to extract the syrupy juice from the fruit thus dried and shrivelled, and it is there effected by means of the ordinary wine-press. The wine of Carbonnieux is said to have secured an early and profitable market within the sealed shores of Turkey, *à-propos* of which the following anecdote is recorded: "The estate once belonged to the abbey of St. Croix, near Bordeaux. The holy fathers realized an enormous profit by sending their wines to Turkey, notwithstanding the provisions of the Mussulman law were wholly opposed to their admission. To mystify Mahomet, however, was a holy work in the estimation of the children of St. Benoit; so they exported their white wine, of which the limpidity was remarkable, as 'the mineral waters of Carbonnieux.' Under this plausible denomination the wine long eluded the rigour of the Ottoman custom-house, and baffled the vigilance and anathemas of the imperial prophets. The children of the triple crown being thus triumphant over the sons of the Koran, a sagacious Frenchman remarked, 'that it was much better to give wine as water, than to pass off water for wine,' as too frequently happened in his own country." At Carbonnieux there is said to be one of the most extraordinary collections of vines in existence, which is being continually further enriched by contributions from all parts of the world.

The excellence of the Bordelais growths has been recognised through many ages, and no class of wines has maintained its ancient repute more uniformly, being characterized by a silky softness and charming perfume, which partake of the nature of the violet and the raspberry. At present they unquestionably rank among the most perfect that France produces, and as they keep well, and even improve by sea-carriage, are freely exported to all parts of the world. The author of a *Trip to Languedoc*, a lively and graceful itinerary, written and published in the time of

Louis XIV., describes the Garonne in his day as being "so large at the point of land where it forms its junction with the Dordogne, that it really is like a sea; and the tide is so impetuous, that we made the passage from Blaye to Bordeaux in less than four hours,—

" Bordeaux, the first of Traffic's daughters,
Sitting in middle of the waters,
And welcoming, with stately pride,
More ships than all the earth beside.

"The port, indeed, was so crowded with vessels, that we found it difficult to get to shore. The great fair was then about to take place, and had attracted this throng of visitors to carry off the wine of the country :

" For rude as, in reality,
This famous port of ours may be,
It has the honour, when they dine,
To furnish half the North with wine.

"An immense quantity is exported every year, but not of the best sort. They treat their customers like Germans.* It was not only prohibited to sell the best wines for exportation, but the merchant could not get a prime bottle at the tavern."

"In the middle ages," writes Francisque-Michel, "merchant vessels could sail safely only in fleets, for fear of pirates; and this was not the only danger attending commerce between London and Bordeaux. The approach to some parts of the coast of Guyenne was more hazardous than going down to Jericho. There was on that coast an ancient 'right of wreck.' The people of the town of Mimizan, between Bayonne and Bordeaux, claimed a right of seizure of all cargoes of vessels driven on their shores; and we read of one Thomas de Hampton, who, having been attacked by the pirates of Santander, captured the hostile privateer, and bore away his prize to Cape Breton. There he was assailed by an armed rabble, headed by their mayor, who seized both the prize and his own ship's valuable cargo. To run thus on shore to escape from lawless pirates, was to flee from Scylla only to fall into the jaws of Charybdis. On such occasions lords of manors near the coast took the lion's share of the spoil, and kings did not disdain to claim wrecks as perquisites.

* In the Austrian dominions, and other parts of Germany, it was formerly a rule in their dealings to compel the buyer of every cask of prime wine to take, at the same time, one of inferior quality.

The mercantile guilds of that period, instituted for regulating the affairs of commerce, were unequal to put an end to such warfare ; and resting on their feeble endeavours to control it, instead of suppressing the strife of every one against every one, they substituted privilege against privilege, and guild against guild. The commercial squabbles between London and Bordeaux were especially long and obstinate. Among the public cares of the first three Edwards, those of adjusting the disputes of the two municipal authorities were not the least. The London citizens opposed the claims of the wine-merchants of Guyenne to settle as traders within their precincts, and even prohibited their lodging in the warehouses where they stored their cargoes ; fights between London citizens and armed crews of ships from Bordeaux frequently occurred in the docks, and royal attempts to suppress these jealousies were not always attended with success, for the decrees of Edward II. were treated as subordinate to those issued by the Mayor and Corporation of the city of London, which was then truly an *imperium in imperio*. It can hardly be a matter of wonder that the mercantile guilds of the middle ages claimed such respect even from the throne, when it is considered that they included kings, nobles, and dignitaries of the church among their members. The archbishop of Guyenne was a wine-merchant. Henry III. had large transactions in Bordeaux wines, and was also a dealer in hides ; the Black Prince, at one time, carried on a good trade in stock-fish, and John Lackland left heavy wine-bills to be paid by his son.”—*Histoire du Commerce à Bordeaux*.

“The hills near Bordeaux,” remarks sir Edward Barry, “produce excellent wines in much profusion, both red and white. Some of the red kinds were distinguished for their superior qualities, and a peculiar flavour to each of them, and they were more carefully made. The French wine-dealers, however, encouraged by the increasing demands for these wines, first began to mix their inferior kinds with the Spanish, particularly with those of Alicante ; and though there was a severe law forbidding the practice, yet it was connived at, and, as it added strength of flavour to them, the price was gradually raised, and the demand for them increased. The addition of the Spanish wines would not have been so very inimical to the weak French Clarets if they naturally incorporated and preserved their union and transparency ; but this was not to be obtained without exciting a fresh fermentation, which dissipated entirely its native flavour, and gave it a tendency to an acetous kind of acrimony. By these arts we have been almost entirely deprived of any genuine Claret wines, which had been so long esteemed for their grateful

and salutary qualities. Few now can recognise the peculiar flavour of their first-growths in their former genuine state, or drink them with satisfaction in their existing deteriorated state."

"Popular opinion in France," it may be observed, *teste* Dr. Brinton, "regards Claret as not only less heady or intoxicating, but (even apart from this character) more wholesome than Burgundy. This may find some explanation in the larger ingredients of tannin ($1\frac{1}{2}$ to 1), of salts (nearly 2 to 1), and especially of iron (about 15 to 1), contained in the Bordeaux wines. The latter quantity—from 6 to 7 grains in a pint—is equal to a full medicinal dose."

The best white kinds of this department are of superior quality: they are divided into dry and luscious, and will keep a long time. For some years past they have been advancing in estimation, and, generally speaking, may be said to come to us in a more genuine state than the red wines, which are often subjected to various processes by the Bordeaux merchants, in order to prepare and suit them for particular markets. A small vineyard in the commune of Ordonnac, belonging to the ancient abbey of Ile, produces a wine with the odour of roses; but it is inferior in other respects, and reckoned of small value.

Burgundy, with its rich vinous growths, and a renown established centuries ago, is the product of the province of that name, and is rightly esteemed as one of the most perfect wines known; whilst for richness of flavour, grateful aroma, and all the more delicate qualities essential to vinous excellence, it cannot be surpassed. It is easily recognised by its beautiful colour, its generous and enlivening piquancy, and the exquisite perfume of its bouquet,—a genial and untiring theme for the historian and lyrist of many a past generation. The soil which produces the grape is most favourable, and to the natural advantages of an equable climate, and benignant sites and aspects, must be superadded unceasing care and industry in culture, skilful treatment of the fruit, and sound judgment in the process of manufacture, culminating in a product that bears a high character all over the world. Paramount among the superior red kinds stand those of Clos-Vougeot, Beaune, Chambertin, Nuits, Pomard, Volnay with its refreshing taste of the raspberry, St. Georges, Richebourg, and the delicious

Romanée Conti, which is held to be the most perfect of the many wines of Burgundy. Its high characteristics are body combined with a subtle, alluring softness, rich ruby colour, and delicate bouquet. Bearing thus the exclusive palm of excellence, it should not be confounded with the Romanée St. Vincent, so called after the monks of St. Vivant, who owned it before the Revolution, or with other second-class Romanée vintages. Genuine Romanée Conti, although it is made to figure in numberless price-lists and *cartes de vin*, is very rarely met with, for even a prolific vintage never exceeds 4,000 bottles, and secondary wines, good too in their way, are summoned to do the duty of a forlorn hope. It necessarily follows that true Romanée Conti is suitable for the tables of crowned heads only, or at least of millionaires, and wine offered at less than an extravagant price certainly can never be genuine. Clos de Vougeot and Chambertin—the *vin velouté* par excellence of the Côte d'Or, are finer kinds of Volnay, sound and firm, with a delicacy enhanced by a refreshing flavour slightly suggestive of the raspberry, and a seductive aroma unrivalled by any contiguous competitor. Other neighbouring growths, though of less fullness, are still very fine, and many of the communes produce white as well as red.

“About one-third of the distance,” we are told, “from Dijon to the Côte d'Or, a few kilomètres before reaching Nuits, an old enclosure skirts the highway, pierced centrally by a huge gateway; in honour of which, in days gone by, a chivalrous French colonel, when marching past with his regiment, commanded the drums to beat and his men to present arms. This enclosure is part of a quadrangle that encircles an area of fifty hectares, over which a crumbling unfinished manorial residence, in the *renaissance* style, maintains a jealous watch. This precious ground is the Clos-Vougeot. The term Vougeot is derived from ‘la Vouge,’ a sparkling stream running close by, and abounding with trout,—a dainty accompaniment when sipping the wine. The extent of the vine boundary was at first very small, and then known as ‘la Charmotte,’ a diminutive tract of land now completely enveloped in the white shoots of ‘la Perrière.’ This small Charmotte belonged to the monks of Cîteaux, once known as the monks of Molêmes, until a duke of Burgundy, Eudes the First, and Reginald, viscount of Beaune, whose consciences must have been ill at ease, gave to the fraternity of Molêmes a

certain desert patch in a wood known as the 'Cistertium,' now clipped of its fair proportions by the French diminutive 'Cîteaux.' This occurred A.D. 1086.

"When Etienne, the third abbot of the monks of Cîteaux, began his rule, the monastery was honoured with a visit from St. Bernard, to whom the abbot extended a pious and reverential hospitality, rewarded by a change in the name of the Order from 'Monks of Cîteaux,' to that of 'Bernardins of Cîteaux,' who soon grew famous and beloved of the people. Their piety, the worth and number of their good deeds, and their learning, became widespread topics of comment and admiration. In return for their charitable conduct, men vied with each other in bestowing donations of domains or money. Thus, little by little, they became the owners and intelligent cultivators of all the vine-lands between Meursault and Dijon,—a brave extent of territory. The petite Charmotte had thus progressively extended its limits, until it became nearly as large as the present Clos de Vougeot, without, however, reckoning the manor-house, where are stored the presses, utensils, and cellars, which was not erected prior to the sixteenth century. Yet these possessions, so ample in themselves, only subserved a longing greed for more. No sooner had the pious brethren perfected Vougeot, than they longed for the means of direct communication between their estate and Cîteaux, because it was not at all pleasant for them to be obliged to traverse another's property in order to reach their own. They obtained Gilly by purchase from the monks of St. Germain, which in the fourteenth century became secularized. This brought them into more immediate contact with the outer world ; and, as since the time of Henry IV. they had espoused the cause of the League against the Bourbon, captain Tavannes, as hasty a son of Bourignon as ever lived, burned their then proud Gilly to the ground, leaving its blackened walls and roomy vaults as an enduring testimony to his prowess.

"It was once said, that if Clos-Vougeot is the peerless diadem of vine-growing Burgundy, Romanée Conti is the crown-diamond ; for what miles and miles of common land would not be gladly exchanged for those five small acres ! Romanée ? Whence the name ? Could it possibly be derived from the conquering Romans ? Nobody knows, and let us not attempt to pry too far into past historic times. For present needs, by a government official survey of the estate, dated at Vosne on the 18th Messidor, in the revolutionary year II., we are permitted to learn that the *minimum* yield of these vines is about one hogshead per acre ; that is to say, five hogsheads for the entire vineyard. In propitious seasons, however, this incomparable site has yielded considerably

more. In 1772 eighteen hogsheads were made from its fruit, and in 1785 the number amounted to a full score, that being its *maximum* power. The wine of 1859 was superb. . . . We cannot deny," proceed the writers, "that the wine of Romanée Conti is the best of all the wines of the Côte d'Or, if not of all the vineyards of France. Its mellow and brilliant colour, its perfume and warmth, charm the senses. When well prepared and cared for, on reaching its eighth or ninth year it continues always to increase in value. It becomes the talisman of life for the old, the feeble, and infirm, and would rekindle into brilliancy the almost expiring lamp of life. Louis XIV., for at least ten years, owed his existence to it,—a merciful boon to himself, if valued by none besides. During the ownership of the prince of Conti, this wine was unpurchasable in the open market, his highness retaining the whole vintage for his own table solely. After his death the vine-land, for which he paid 80,000*l.*, was purchased by M. Nicholas Defer, a Paris gardener, for 112,000 francs, who subsequently resold it to Tourton and Ravel, its happy owners before the late M. Ouvrard. In 1869 the vineyard of Romanée Conti was once more offered for sale, and bought by M. Paul Guillemot for 239,500 francs, who shortly afterwards transferred his purchase to M. Duvault-Blochet, vine-proprietor and merchant, for 312,000 francs, at a clear profit of 72,500 francs, thus realizing almost the large price originally paid by the prince of Conti."

The *Compagnie des Grands Vins de Bourgogne* price this wine at from 12 to 20 francs per bottle, according to the quality of the vintage. This is a consideration of no small moment to consumers, who cannot be oblivious of the tendencies of the trade towards repeating in many ways the miracle of the marriage feast of Cana, which they adroitly accomplish, often with sundry little improvements of their own. The interests in the two estates are now divided, but as long as Romanée Conti and Clos-Vougeot belonged to one sole proprietary, princely Romanée was brewed at the *clos*. Then it was treated with additional respect on account of its rank; and there was no chance of any undue mixture, there being no blending affinities between the two wines, the mysterious properties of the soil being alone accountable for the divergences.

The white wines of Burgundy, although numerous, are less generally known, yet they are not inferior to the red either in

flavour or character, and maintain a high position among French vintages. In the territory of Volnay stands the vineyard of Santenot: whilst the upper portion gives the much-esteemed Meursault, the middle and lower yield a red variety, which is often preferred to that of Volnay. From the south-west quarter comes the champion wine of the province, at once its Château Yquem, Johannisberger, and imperial Tokay, which every native-born Burgundian pronounces to be the grandest white wine on the face of the globe. Its prominent merits are fulness of body, absolute homogeneity, a rich yet delicate flavour, a suave bouquet, and a capacity for keeping any length of time without losing one of its splendid qualities. This is the Montrachet *ainé*, the product of a vineyard situate halfway up the slope of the hill whence it derives its name. Two other varieties known as the Chevalier and the Bâtard, the one grown at its summit and the other at its base, are less commendable. Of these, the first possesses body combined with dryness and delicacy of flavour; while the latter, though impressed with a taste somewhat resembling the *premier crû*, is heavy, harsh, and divested of the subtlety, bouquet, and aroma that distinguish its chief. Genuine Montrachet consequently commands a fabulous price, and even the Bâtard in good condition sells at from 60s. to 70s. retail. Most of the other vintages differ essentially from them, and are generally inferior. The hill slopes of the little vineyard of Perrières yield a dry white kind nearly equal in quality to Chambertin, of a slightly sulphurous taste, agreeable to the palate, and much esteemed because of its vicinity to the Montrachet. The only other sort that calls for particular mention is the well-known Chablis. Pale in colour, delicate and pellucid, dry and diuretic in quality, with an agreeable aroma though somewhat flinty in taste, its sterling merits have secured for it a permanent place in general estimation.

There is an infinite variety in the wines of Burgundy which an Englishman can hardly be supposed to comprehend. Accustomed to vintages less delicate than potent, his favourite beverage is chosen more for fulness of body than perfection of flavour. All continental people dislike Port, which is no

favourite anywhere save in England. Even the Portuguese do not drink their own vinous produce when thus metamorphosed. Their native 'Oporto' is akin to Burgundy, light and delicate; but when they sell to England, they load and overload it with ardent spirits. On account of its great delicacy, the quality of Burgundy is easily affected: the most finished and perfect growths, the French say, are deteriorated even by so short a passage across the Channel as that from Calais to Dover. The choicest kind is never exported except in bottle, and the quantity produced being very small, few reach England better than those of the second class. The French are fastidious in their preferences, and retain the best for their own use at as good a price as can be obtained anywhere else; those which rank the highest are consequently scarce wines with the foreigner. An old French proverb says, "Burgundy for kings; Champagne for duchesses; Claret for gentlemen; and Port for citizens." And another avers that "the Caliban among wines is Port; the Ariel is Champagne."

From the second year in bottle the stoutest and hardest samples of Burgundy wine have attained their full perfection; but they are extremely sensitive, and the least vibration or shaking is often sufficiently disturbing to render them cloudy and unfit for immediate use. They maintain their quality well for ten years and upwards, but the white sorts are apt to become ropy with advancing age.

Hermitage and Côte Rôtie. A lofty granitic hill near the inconsiderable town of Tain, situate on the left bank of the Rhône, claims the far-famed vineyards yclept the Hermitage. The wine so named is the product of plantations in the department of the Drôme, once a portion of ancient Dauphiny. Of these the vines of Valence are the most conspicuous for the excellence of their fruit, which is grown on slopes of no great elevation, but with a warm southern aspect, and forming part of a chain of granitic mountains which extend from Tain to St. Vallier. Tradition has it, that centuries ago, during the minority of that model of the church, Saint Louis, while returning wounded along the banks of the Rhône from a crusade against the Albi-

genses, a knight of the court of Blanche of Castile ascended by way of penance this precipitous mount, and offered up his prayer in the little chapel of St. Christophe. Inspired now by a pious desire to live hereafter in peace with all men, he chose this pleasant spot whereon to build for himself a hermitage, there to spend the remainder of his days in religious contemplation. Around his new habitation he reared a few vine-slips obtained from the neighbouring town of Condrieux. They flourished to admiration, and, occupying his vacant hours with breaking to pieces the loose stones and rocky fragments that surrounded his cell, the sterile eminence was soon converted into a smiling vineyard. He gave freely of his wine to the many weary pilgrims who came to pray at the shrine of St. Christophe ere they resumed their toilsome journey, and the reputation of his hospitality and the renown of his wine, by a constant succession of new devotees, gradually extended over the surface of the civilized globe, whilst future communities of eremites lent new sanctity to the cheerful scene. On the summit of the principal mount, named Bessas, are still to be seen the ruins of the retreat of these pious hermits, the last of whom died about a century and half ago.

The quantity of this wine annually gathered is considerable, but variable in quality, which is further affected by the influence of changing seasons. The product of the hill of Hermitage owes its superiority over the wines of neighbouring slopes chiefly to the circumstance of the granitic soil of a portion of that hill being mixed with calcareous matter, in which the others are entirely deficient. Among the French the Hermitage is esteemed as the fullest and richest coloured, and is universally accorded a high position among the choicest of their numerous wines. It is drawn from two varieties of plants, called the little and great *scyras*, currently believed on the spot to have been brought from Shiraz, in Persia, by one of the missionary fraternity of Bessas. It is divisible into five classes, the higher grades being prized throughout Europe for their firmness, vinosity, and splendid bouquet. Wine of the first class is not bottled for exportation until it has been mellowed four or five

years in the cask. The produce of a good season always commands a high price, and it will keep sound for twenty years.

Unlike the method pursued in the Bordelais, the vines in the Tain district are allowed free extension, and are trained up poles often ten feet in height, which gives to these vineyards somewhat the appearance of an English hop-garden. They commonly grow higher than their supports, and are then arched over, which has the effect, it is said, of causing the grapes to concentrate in masses at the foot of the plant. The Hermitage vineyards, comprising 340 acres, occupy two principal slopes, the soils of which differ much. The one nearest the Rhône has a subsoil of granite, while the other is composed of alluvium. It is the combined products of these several sites that yield the finest Hermitage, so that it is requisite to possess vines growing in each of them for the wine to be classed as a *premier cru*. The fruit raised on the granite, the surface of which is decomposed into a friable sand, gives the deepest coloured wine, but it is the product of the stony gravel ground that yields the finest flavour. The characteristics of well-matured red Hermitage of the first class are, a powerful bouquet partaking somewhat of the raspberry, a rich deep purple colour, a fulness combined with a velvety softness, and yet higher vinous qualities than any of the best growths of Médoc.

The department of the Rhône, anciently known as the Lyonnais and Beaujolais, retains its well-earned repute for the superior character of its vintages ; and among its white wines, as well as the red, those of the Tain district occupy a foremost place. The lighter varieties are made from white grapes only, chiefly the greater and lesser *rousanne*, and constitute the richest and driest of any of French origin. The wine is soft and rich on the palate, and has an agreeable aroma, unlike any other white kind known. In colour it is of a straw yellow, but when long kept it gradually acquires more of an amber tint. It is very durable, and will keep for a century without any deterioration, although after a period of twenty-five or thirty years its flavour and fragrance undergo a change. The vinous, luscious, almost unctuous *Ermitage-paille*, with its volume, its marrowy

richness, its delicious smoothness, combined with a refreshing sharpness far removed from the slightest acidity, is made from select and perfect bunches of the white grape, and manufactured with scrupulous care. The quantity raised is small, and to obtain it in full perfection a peculiar season is requisite for the fruit to attain exact maturity, followed by dry and mild weather whilst the grapes are mellowing on the straw.

In the territory adjacent to the city of Lyons certain of the vintages are held in great local esteem, and notably those at St. Genis de Laval and Grande Galée, and one or two others. On the summit of a steep stony mountain road, winding through a perfect sea of vines, is perched the almost deserted though still substantial stone-built château of La Grande Galée, with its ornamented gates of rust-eaten ironwork. The vine-grounds around it owe their origin to a company of Oratorians, who some couple of centuries ago acquired the old château, and planted the surrounding slopes with vines. Around the little town of Ampuis, however, lies the site of the renowned Côte Rôtie, whose celebrity dates anterior to the Christian era, for from its vineyards and the adjacent commune of Condrieux it is pretty certain that the Romans obtained their famous "wine of Vienne," the bitter, or rather tarry, flavour of which finds honourable mention from Pliny the younger, is commemorated in the verse of Martial, and which Plutarch describes as being in high favour with the Romans.

The numerous plantations on the precipitous slopes of Ampuis, rising from the narrow fertile plain bordering the Rhône, and facing the south and west,—the former bearing the finest fruit, and from which the splendid wine of Côte Rôtie is produced,—extend for nearly a couple of miles, and comprise 95 acres of vines. The vintage, as a rule, lasts fully fifteen days, there being usually as many as four different gatherings. The terraces on which the vines are planted, and which are supported by rude stone walls that resemble at a distance endless irregular flights of gigantic steps, are crowded with women and children, the more experienced among them engaged in deftly pinching off the bunches with their thumb and finger, while the

less skilful have recourse to the aid of scissors. Only the extremely ripe bunches are taken at the first gathering by the pickers, who are paid a couple of francs a day.

Côte Rôtie, with its purple hue, its limpidity combined with considerable *verve*, a faint tonical bitterness relieved by a fruity fragrance resembling a compound of strawberries and violets, is not a wine to sip by itself, but to drink in unity with rich dishes, or better still, with juicy viands, which will best serve to educe all its peculiar and fascinating flavour, richness, and softness rarely equalled. Unhappily, however, these exceptional qualities are obtainable only at the cost of its natural developement from the must, the fermentation being then checked by the addition of sulphur in order to retain the saccharine elements, by which much of the aroma and raciness properly belonging to the best growths are sacrificed. Real connoisseurs assert that it is something more than a mistake to encourage the growing taste for those luscious products wherein the sugary element predominates to the detriment of the finer and more subtle vinous qualities. Wines, moreover, of this heavy tendency can be used but sparingly, besides the fact that the little so swallowed serves to cloy rather than to refresh the palate.

The remarkable properties that distinguish the Côte Rôtie vintage are attributable to a combination of circumstances; and first, to the exceedingly friable nature of the soil; next, to its plantations being sheltered at all points from the north wind, and further protected in front by the Côteau de Vaugris on the opposite bank of the river, which aids in concentrating the sun's rays on the Ampuis slopes immediately in its front; and finally, to a peculiar species of vine, said to have originally come from the Levant. The finest vine-grounds stretch along the road between St. Colombe and Condrieux,—one noted vineyard, which produces the "*vin du Turc*," being seated above the Fontjean stream. The second-class wines come from the Côteau de la Roche and Verenay vine-grounds; while those of a third grade are chiefly grown on the plantation situate at the very summit of the hill. Another peculiarity pertaining to the produce of Côte Rôtie is, that it is usually made with three parts red

grapes of the *serine* species, and one-third of the *vionnier* white variety. The outcome of a fine vintage season, to secure its highest perfection, should be kept from three to four years in wood, and fifteen more in bottle, when it may rest as many as twenty-four years further without material decay. Decomposition in the bottle will be concurrent with a relaxation of the slight crust deposited on its side, the colour, turning to a tawny brown and gradually assuming a yellow hue, when the wine will become oily and rancid.

The vines of Condrieux produce some very remarkable wines in considerable quantities; and notably a white wine which, effervescent during its first year, is like a still Champagne in the second, and finally subsides into a nutty-flavoured cordial. Some other native sorts resemble the luscious wine of Frontignan, with a syrupy taste when new, but become dry, spirituous, and of a mild and pleasant bitter when kept a few years. Select parcels of these vintages are largely sold in England and elsewhere as Château Grillé, a wine much esteemed on this side of the Channel, where it commands a high price.

Château Grillé is situate between Ampuis and Condrieux, and is approached by a steep pathway along the banks of the Rhône, past groves of mulberry trees, cottages overgrown with vines and overhung with shady eaves, and across little bridges spanning the rocky beds of dried-up mountain torrents. The walls of an early Gothic chapel, which is all that remains of the ancient castle, demolished for the most part during the first Revolution, overlook, and indeed almost overhang the river flowing at its base. The vineyard, which mounts to the summit of the precipitous cliff that dominates the château in the rear, encircles the crumbling structure and its dependencies in the form of a horse-shoe, thus conferring the important advantage of a full southern aspect, and from its peculiar shape further concentrating, as it were, the summer heat within its immediate precincts; and this singular conformation probably obtained for the château its peculiar name. The grapes here grown are also of the *vionnier* species, and are allowed, as in the case of the Château Yquem, to become shrivelled and almost rotten before

they are gathered. They are not severed from the stalks before passing under the wine-press, and the must is permitted to ferment only twelve hours in the vat. It is then run off into casks, when, being rather a thick fluid than an ordinary liquid, it is racked off into fresh barrels so soon as the heavy lees are deposited and it has received a fining of isinglass. This process is repeated several times in the course of the ensuing twelvemonth, during which period the wine continues in a perpetual ferment. In its second year it is fit for bottling, and will keep sound and good for many years. This wine is essentially a *vin-de-dessert*, and such is the estimation in which it is held both at home and abroad, that ten times the entire production of its diminutive vineyard is said to be annually shipped away and sold under its attractive name.

Roussillon. As we approach the fertile shores of the Mediterranean we find the vine flourishing, and displaying the choicest fruit. With such advantages, the produce of these territories might be expected to surpass the best growths of other departments; but it is principally in the sweet class of white wines, which are drawn from the ripest and richest grapes, that their superiority becomes manifest. It is here that the choicest *muscadine* wines are grown,—limpid, spirituous, and highly fragrant. The Frontignan variety is known from all others by the very marked flavour of the grape from which it is obtained. When the wine is old, the taste of the fruit becomes less perceptible, but it continues always surpassingly luscious, and its perfume has been likened to that of the elder-flower. The Rivesaltes has a rich, oily smoothness, a fragrant aroma, with a delicate flavour of the quince, and is, perhaps, the best muscadine wine grown. The red wines of Roussillon are strong and generous, with great depth of colour and remarkable durability; but they are commonly thick and heavy, and almost always deficient in the more subtile properties of flavour and aroma, which, in a great measure, are sacrificed to the desire of ensuring the complete developement of the colouring matter. From the use of new methods, however, and the attention more recently bestowed on the subject, there is reason to expect that, in good

time, all the wines of the south will be much ameliorated, and acquire that distinction among the vintages of France to which their intrinsic worth ought naturally to raise them. In Provence their mammoth grapes are sometimes crushed by the tread of mules. "In streams," as Moritz Hartmann playfully describes it, "the red juice flows from the boards into large stone reservoirs, incontinently splashing the vintage dray even while yet on its way to the store-room. To-morrow rosy foam will already invade the cradle of the young god, and such an inebriate odour will ascend from it, that the neighbouring pigeons will quit their nests and their eggs. The man, who dances up there on the boards of the wine-press with broad shoes, and from beneath whose feet streams of juice gush forth, becomes intoxicated by the evaporating odour, and unwittingly continues dancing, wrapped in sweet bliss, feebly representing a travestied Silenus."

A good and substantial wine, popularly known as Masdeu, is a growth of this department ; it is the product of a black grape, is very deep in colour, and combines a rich mellow flavour with a good bouquet. Firmness and vinosity of a very perfect kind are its chief characteristics, and it so much resembles Port wine as to be sometimes mistaken for it : it improves in bottle, and will keep to a considerable age. Masdeu is a very old name for the vineyard, and it signifies "God's field." The difference of national taste and feeling is here strongly marked between the French and the Germans : "God's field" in France is a vineyard ; "God's field" in Germany is a churchyard.

Champagne. The wines for which the ancient province of Champagne is justly celebrated, rank first in excellence among the vintages of France. By Champagne is commonly understood a sparkling or frothing liquor, containing an excess of carbonic acid gas, which is set free on removing the pressure that retained it in solution. This notion is not altogether correct, for the district furnishes many excellent wines besides such as effervesce. Whilst their exhilarating virtues are familiar to every one, it should be borne in mind that the briskest wines are not always the best, and certainly keep the worst : they are the

most defective in true vinous quality, and the small portion of alcohol they contain rapidly escapes from the bubbling froth as it rises on the surface, carrying with it much of the aroma, and the liquor that remains soon becomes nearly vapid. High quality still Champagne in its natural state may be said to be perfect, both in bouquet and flavour; the effervescence is creamy, neither rapid nor frothy, but scintillating and beamy,—its airy bubbles continuing to rise in the glass for some time when at rest. The sparkle of inferior growths is as evanescent as the foam of soda-water. Hence the still, or the creaming, or the slightly effervescing kinds are more highly prized by connoisseurs, and carry a much higher price.

The effervescent state of Champagne is due exclusively to the carbonic gas it contains as generated in fermentation. Imprisoned in the wine, and retained by force in the bottle, it seeks unceasingly to escape; and as soon as the bonds by which the cork is fastened are severed, drives out the latter with considerable force. The gas, then dilating in all directions, rises with rapidity, and carries with it small globules of wine, with which it forms the *mousse*, or froth. This *mousse* is the product of the carbonic acid, and the latter is produced by the fermentation of the sugar. Without carbonic acid there can be no effervescence, and without sugar in the wine there can be no carbonic acid. The sugar, consequently, is the parent source of the *mousse*, and to produce it a sufficiency of the natural grape-sugar must of necessity be inherent in the wine, or an addition of cane-sugar, or more often of sugar-candy, is made to supply the unwelcome deficiency. By the aid of alcoholic fermentation the sugar thus added is transformed, in two nearly equal portions, into alcohol, which is liquid, and carbonic acid, a substance of a gaseous nature. The alcohol, readily absorbed, enters into chemical combination with the wine; but not so the carbonic acid, a lambent substance of far lower weight and much greater elasticity, which persistently strives to escape. Of this element the effervescing wine in a Champagne bottle includes a proportion equal to at least five times its own volume. The sparkling vivacity thus imparted is very taking and seductive; yet this in itself is not a true test of

quality, nor does the wine possess the body or bouquet characteristic of many of greater intrinsic worth. For many years both French and English affected a particular preference for the frothy and effervescing kinds. French connoisseurs, however, have mostly relinquished that illusory taste, nor does it now so earnestly prevail elsewhere. So also, we may suppose, thought the genial Brillat-Savarin when he wrote, "Le vin de Champagne, qui est excitant dans ses premiers effets, est stupéfiant dans ceux qui suivent; ce qui est au surplus un effet notoire du gaz carbonique qu'il contient." Free effervescence usually accompanies over-much sweetness, which serves to cover the poverty and latent acidity of an inferior wine. A noisy, frothy Champagne too often rouses eager expectation, especially at hotels, at pic-nic pleasure parties, and heterogeneous public banquets, if, on releasing it from its iron fetters, the cork be at once ejected with a saucy bounce and a lively ebullition, and the impatient guest quaffs it with alacrity and unaffected zest.

It is on the banks of the Marne and its vicinity that the best "river wines," as they are sometimes called, are produced. The white kinds will not admit of being mixed with any but those of their own growth, and they generally remain the pure production of the spot they are named after. The premier Champagne-producing vine-lands are those of Bouzy, Verzenay, Ambonnay, Ay, and Sillery, yielding red or white varieties at pleasure. The red of Bouzy approach in bouquet the first-class wines of Burgundy. In all the superior grounds of Champagne they cultivate the black grape, known as the "golden plant" (*plant doré*), being a variety of the vine called *pinet*, and red and white *pineau*. A pink or rose-colour wine, known as *œil de perdrix* (partridge-eye), is obtained by pressure of the husks of the red or black grape, which latter, as a general rule, produces the best and strongest wine of Champagne. It might seem, at first, somewhat singular that the darkest fruit should furnish wines of a white, grey, or straw colour, but such, nevertheless, is the fact; that species, too, ripens more readily, resists the frost and rain common in vintage-time much better, and yield stouter produce than the white sorts. At Epernay, where the black grape is

most in favour, wine is made approaching that of Aj in delicacy, and often surpassing it both in saccharine abundance and fragrancy of bouquet. The hilly territory around Rheims, richly mantled with vine plantations, supplies red wines in much profusion, but these rank as second class only. The aspect lies east and north, the soil light and calcareous; the produce generally, however, is rich, potent, and well-flavoured, retaining its qualities to an advanced age. "Upon the fruitful sunny slopes of the neighbouring leagues of Rheims," drily remarks a recent writer, "the grapes ripen that yield Champagne—the Champagne that delights the Washington senator and the Russian prince; with which great deeds and great luck are equally celebrated the civilized world through. Some dozen millions of bottles of this 'ladies' wine,'—which gentlemen drink, it must be allowed, without much ado,—may be found stowed within the capacious area of old Rheims, where there are great mills for the manufacture of this precious wine."

Before quitting the subject of French effervescing wines, mention should be made of another description, recently introduced into this country as "the sparkling wine of Saumur." This vintage, which is grown in large quantities in the valley of the Loire, possesses certain attractions and some merit; and being imported at a low price, it is not unfrequently passed off as cheap and genuine Champagne.

The province of Champagne is very fruitful, and produces wine almost endless in variety and quality. Some classes, however, are too meagre to engage the notice of foreigners, while others are too light to bear exportation. The utmost care and skill are unremittingly devoted to the manufacture of the sparkling wines, and bringing them to perfection, and it is interesting to observe the amount of assiduity and expensive labour bestowed on the process. The vine-crop designed for this purpose is gathered with the greatest care possible. The grapes for the purest class consist only of those raised from an approved species of vine. Every grape that has not acquired a perfect maturity, every decayed berry touched with the frost, or pricked, is rejected. In collecting, in emptying the baskets, and in removal

to the press-room, every motion that can blemish the fruit is avoided, as well as any injurious action from the sun's rays. When the quantity is sufficient for a pressing, they are heaped as gently as possible on the wine-press, and the bunches methodically arranged. Perhaps there is no production of the soil that requires more care than the grape to make it yield these delicious wines in full perfection, and this may be the main cause of a standing complaint against Champagne,—that it cannot be obtained of uniform quality, which, moreover, will never be obviated by the mistaken practice of tunnning it into barrels of a hundred and sixty litres only in size. The wine of each separate cask must and will vary, for the minutest change in the process of developement affects in some degree the precision it is wished to attain. The portion which is intended to effervesce is put into bottles in March and April after it is made; that designed for still wine is not bottled until the autumn. For this purpose the barrel head is tapped, and a small brass pipe inserted, capped with a fine gauze strainer to intercept the smallest foreign particles. The bottles are filled to within two inches of the cork: with a subsequent formation of gas this space gradually diminishes, and should the void entirely close up by the expansion of the liquid, breakage generally ensues. The effervescence is owing to the carbonic acid gas generated in the fermentation. The gas being thus compressed by chemical affinities, scarcely begins to develope itself in the cask, but is very quickly reproduced in bottle. In this process the saccharine and tartarous properties are decomposed. If the latter principle predominate, the wine effervesces strongly, but is weak; if the saccharine principle be considerable, and the alcohol present in sufficient quantity to limit its decomposition, the quality is good. To meet the palate of the consumer, the native properties of the wine are finally modified by adding a suitable proportion of delicate liqueur composed of fine white sugar-candy dissolved in good and well-matured Cognac. Of this infusion Champagne of a prime vintage, being innately rich in sweetness and alcoholic strength, requires but little aid; whilst wines of inferior growth, being often poor and acrid, receive double portions of the

remedy to compensate for natural deficiency and render them vendible.

Great skill and attention are employed to meet the difficulties arising from the circumstances that the wines do not ripen uniformly. Some will effervesce after being in bottle fifteen days, others will demand as many months. One wine will require a change of temperature, and must be brought from a deep cellar to another on the surface; a second will not exhibit a forward state before August; another kind, when patience is exhausted, and the expected developement almost hopeless, will flush up all of a sudden. Considered, indeed, in all its bearings, the ripening maturity of Champagne is most uncertain and changeable. The difference of the spot of growth; the mixture of fruit; the process in making; the storing and preservation in the wood; the glass of the bottles; the aspect, depth, and ventilation of the cellar,—all have a varied, and often inexplicable influence on the phenomena of effervescence.

For the sparkling kinds the strength of the bottles and their uniform thickness are carefully ascertained. They must be new, are closely examined and jingled together in pairs against each other, and every one with an air-bubble in the glass, or with too long or too narrow a neck, or with the least imperfection or malformation, is put aside. The bottles, when carefully and expeditiously filled, are laid horizontally in piles five or six feet high. They are first placed in the coldest cellars, and afterwards gradually removed to warmer temperatures. In July and August considerable breakage happens, occasioned by the expansion of the carbonic acid gas, and a loss of four to ten per cent. is usually occasioned. Sometimes, however, it amounts to thirty or forty per cent. It is remarkable, too, what uncertainty attends the process, for of two piles of the very same wine, in the same part of the cellar, hardly a bottle may be left of one, while the other remains impassive, and without effervescence at all. A current of fresh air will sometimes occasion the wine to develope itself fiercely. The proprietor is thus placed every season in the alternative of suffering much loss by breakage, or put to great expense in aiding wine to ripen that will not progressively

advance itself. Of the two evils he prefers submitting to breakage, rather than incur the trouble and cost of correcting the inertness of the liquor. If the damage be not more than eight or ten per cent. the owner is content ; if it become more serious, he has the pile taken down, and the bottles placed upright for a suitable time. Sometimes he removes the wine into a deeper cellar, or else uncorks it to disengage the superabundant gas, and to fill up the void left under the cork. This last operation occupies considerable time, and adds materially to the outlay.

The piles are longitudinal in form, and ranged parallel to each other, with a very small space between. The daily breakage, before it reaches its fullest extent, will be in one day perhaps five bottles, another ten, the next fifteen. When the gas develops itself with unwonted rapidity, the wine is wasted in large quantities, and it is difficult to save any portion of it. The overflow collects together by means of channels cut in the floor for that purpose. The workmen enter the cellar in wire masks, to guard against the fragments dispersed when the breakage is frequent, as in the month of August, the glass being often projected with considerable force. On displacing a pile, bottles are sometimes found, in spite of the cork and seal continuing still entire, to have diminished in quantity nearly one half by evaporation, which has to be replaced ; whilst in others a sediment is discernible, which it is necessary to remove. This, by no means an easy task, is managed by the workmen with much dexterity. The breakage ceases in the month of September, and in October the wines are ready for sale.

In the second winter, in order to remove the deposit formed in the summer, the bottles are placed with their mouths downwards and shaken for twenty days, to cause the sediment to pass into the neck. This done, the bottle is uncorked, the feculence removed, and a fifth part of the contents replaced by fresh liquor, when the bottles are again corked, tied, and stacked as before. If they continue any great time longer in the cellar, they are re-opened and submitted to a second dislodgment of the deposit, and sometimes even to a third.

It is a strict rule never to send Champagne from the factory without this being done about fifteen days prior to its removal, for if omitted, the brightness of the wine would be affected by the sediment in the transit. The non-effervescing wines, if of the white species, all undergo the operation of uncorking and clearing at least once before they are sent away. Thus, to the last moment the wine continues in the maker's charge, the process is troublesome, irregular, and sufficiently expensive to account for the superior price demanded for Champagne of the first quality. Some proprietors of the finer growths never sell a bottle under $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$ francs, however abundant the season. These are the best parties of whom to purchase where quality is the object. The first waste and losses of the vintage being over, they retain in their stores for many years a stock of known character, with which they wait without impatience the too certain return of bad seasons and high prices. The vast quantities thus accumulated in the cellars of eminent and wealthy growers may be better comprehended if we accept the averment of M. Brillat-Savarin, the accomplished author of *La Physiologie du Goût*, who asserts that, on the invasion of France in 1814, the German and Russian troops, when at Epernay, abstracted from the cellars of M. Mœt no less than 600,000 bottles of first-class Champagne. The despoiled and dejected owner, however, consoled himself for the loss, on finding that the marauders took home with them a vivid recollection of his attractive nectar; and the ample orders he continued thereafter to receive from the North, served to compensate him for the previous wholesale pillage. According to the same authority, the sums spent by the allied forces during the occupation of Paris in 1814, were sufficient to recoup the citizens for the indemnity exacted by the invaders; and whilst Véry and Beauvilliers both realized handsome fortunes, Madame Sullot, of the *Palais Royal*, is said to have sold as many as 12,000 *petits patés* daily.

Again, concerning the destructive war of 1869-70, French papers published a statement, said to have been prepared from authentic statistics, showing that during a year's occupation of

Champagne, the German army of occupation consumed no less than 2,550,000 bottles of the famous vintage of that country. Of that quantity Rheims supplied 1,884,000 bottles ; Epernay, 438,800 ; Ay, 272,200.

The wines of Champagne are divided into no less than six classes or degrees of quality, and hence the importance of ascertaining their precise grade by those who purchase ; for notwithstanding the excessive prices commanded by the leading brands, the consumption continues to increase, the product of 1872-3 being double what it was ten years ago, with the prospect every season of retaining less and less of the genuine Champagne-grape. From recent official statements we learn that thirty million bottles of Champagne are annually sold, and are thus distributed : Africa takes 100,000 ; Spain and Portugal, 300,000 ; Italy, 400,000 ; Belgium, 500,000 ; Germany, 1,000,000 ; France, 2,500,000 ; England, 5,000,000 ; India, 5,000,000 ; and North America 10,000,000—*pas mal !* These figures refer to the real growth of the country, and in no way to the myriads of bottles of rhubarb, gooseberry, and other compounds annually sold and drunk as the true and genuine product of the Epernay vines.

There is an exquisite delicacy pertaining to the wines of Champagne that is more sensible to the foreigner than is the quality which commends the richest Burgundy to the taste of the French amateur, and constitutes the foundation of the unrivalled fame that has attended them through ages. The present perfection of Champagne may be dated from the coronation of Louis XIII., *anno* 1610 ; but the recognition of its worth can be traced back to the beginning of the fourteenth century. We find it on record, that it was placed in the first rank at the state dinners given at Rheims by Charles VI. to Winceslaus, king of Bohemia, his guest, then on a diplomatic visit to aid in the completion of a commercial treaty in negotiation between the two countries. This was in May 1397, when the princes and their retinues lingered around the place for nearly a month afterwards, getting daily fuddled over deep potations of this exhilarating beverage. This early supremacy has never since lacked involuntary homage, even princes and

sovereigns of other countries rendering it allegiance and tribute ; for is it not written that Francis I. of France, pope Leo X., king Charles V. of Spain, and Henry VIII. of England, were severally owners of vineyards at Aj, with resident superintendents attached to secure the genuine produce, each for his own table? In the middle of the seventeenth century a notable controversy arose on the respective merits of Champagne and Burgundy. Certain French physicians having attributed gout to the use of the latter, the school of medicine entered warmly into the discussion, which was not terminated in favour of the superior excellence of Champagne until a hundred and thirty years after it commenced.

Of French wines, those most generally preferred are made in the department of the Côte d'Or, in that of the Marne, the Yonne, the Drôme, and the Gironde. Besides these, down to the ordinary *vin de pays*, the intermediate varieties are very numerous, some of which are little inferior to others in high repute. At Cahors, on the banks of the Lot, they make white, rose-coloured, red, and black wines. The red and white are produced in the usual way. The rose-coloured variety is made of the weakest white wine poured upon the murk of the black grapes, which are never pressed. They gain colour and strength from this process, but are not held in any great esteem. The black wines are obtained from the fine *auxerrois* or *pied de perdrix* grape, so called because its stalk is red. Bordeaux is the principal market for this liquor, where it is used to strengthen or colour those of a lighter description. It is sometimes mingled with aromatics to make a common ratafia, and sometimes it is sold pure. The Cahors wines possess but little bouquet, yet they are not deficient in body, and are very durable.

Lons-le-Saulnier, in the department of the Jura, is noted for its red and white, no less than for its *vins de paille* or straw wines, and several effervescent varieties, white, grey, and rose-coloured. The straw wines are luscious and stomachic, resembling somewhat those of Spanish origin. The sparkling white kinds are good, though not to be compared with Champagne. But one of the most extensive vine districts in France, if quantity rather

than quality be considered, is the department of the Seine and Oise, which contains 16,298 hectares of vines, yielding 849,718 hectolitres of wine.* The whole of this vast crop is of very middling quality, even regarded as ordinary wines of the country, with little prospect of future improvement.

The wines known as *vins de liqueur* are those in which the saccharine principle has not entirely disappeared, and been converted into alcohol during the process of fermentation. Foremost in this class are the sweet wines of Salces, Rivesaltes, Lunel, Frontignan, Beziers, and similar kinds, both red and white. Excellent liqueurs, principally of cherries, are also made in the department of the Isère; and a vineyard in the commune of Rochegude, on the same river, produces a light *tinto* of good quality.

Vins de paille are so denominated from the grapes being laid for several weeks upon straw before they are taken to the press. Sometimes, instead of being thus prepared, they are hung up in straw tresses: the produce, in either case, is a wine of great richness and delicacy. Straw wines are made in several of the departments, but those of the Hermitage vine-lands bear the highest reputation.

Vins mousseux constitute the sparkling and effervescent class, always unmistakable on account of the enlivening properties they spontaneously exhibit; they are raised on various estates in much abundance, being universally prized for their light and exhilarating properties. Of such are the celebrated wines of Champagne, which though not the strongest of their kind may be considered as the best, and are certainly the least injurious, even when freely taken. They intoxicate rather speedily, probably on account of the volatile state of the alcohol, and the abundance of carbonic acid gas they contain; but the excitement is of a more lively and agreeable character, and of shorter duration than when caused by any other liquor. Hence they have been prescribed with advantage for the relief of nervous irritability and similar functional derangements,

* One hectare is equal to 2·47 English acres; the hectolitre to 22 English gallons.

where the need of a brisk and cheering stimulant was indicated. Strangers often prefer the sparkling wines of Limoux, as being more spirituous, and they are further remarkable for the high flavour they attain in their fourth year.

Piquet is a drink prepared for the vineyard labourers, obtained from a third pressing of the must, and the residuum is used for manure.

Absinthe has of late years become a favourite *liqueur* with the gay Parisians, and is extensively consumed among the population of the larger towns and cities of France. It is condemned by many, however, as a very pernicious beverage, whose use should not even be tolerated, as surely tending to end in mental prostration and physical debasement. By way of repression it has been charged with a heavy sur-tax, not on account solely of its alcoholic strength, though it is rated as a pure spirit; but, unfortunately, taxation has proved of no avail in diminishing the demand for this compound, for, like a mighty torrent, the thirst for it increases with an irresistible force, not to be subdued by any natural law or fiscal regulation.

The disorders attributed to the free use of absinthe are occasioned,—first, by excessive indulgence in a very spirituous liquor; secondly and especially, by certain noxious ingredients partly composed of “carburations” of hydrogen and other similar gases, and by a vitious kind of ether, which enter freely into its composition. On account of its alcoholic richness, absinthe should only be taken in small quantities. If the very much-diluted alcohol which is generally added in the manufacture were not mingled with many foreign substances, it would not be in itself dangerous; but, unhappily, absinthe is not strengthened by alcohol and water alone, for it retains in solution alien vegetable particles imbued with potent essences which augment its power for working mischief. The evil effects thus occasioned to man, for which absinthe serves merely as a cloak, are said to be, to deaden conscious sensibility, to paralyze the nervous and muscular systems, with a gradual loss of his mental faculties and physical strength, and finally ending in childish vacuity. Many discussions and serious study have

been devoted as to the best means of depriving this fascinating liqueur of its worst qualities ; if the world at large, however, were fully impressed with the magnitude of the evil, and seriously bent on its repression, much possibly might be effected without resorting to any very stringent measures, or unduly interfering with individual liberty, by simply compelling by legal enactment the distillers of absinthe to exclude from its fabrication those noxious ingredients which are really subversive of health.

Vins cuits, or boiled wines, are of ancient date, having their origin, it is supposed, in Asia and Greece. They are common in Italy and Spain, as well as in France. The richest and finest grapes are selected, usually of the muscadine species, gathered during the hottest part of the day, in order that they may be free from dew and humidity of every kind. The wine, when boiled, is reduced to one-third of its original quantity. It is very pleasant to the taste, of a deep colour, delicate, and generous. When very old, these wines are often passed off for Cyprus, Malmsey, Tinto, or Malaga of the best kind, as the owner may wish them to appear. Boiling is also adopted to make new wine have the appearance of old. Bordeaux wine of two years old so treated, will acquire the flavour of that which is ten or twelve in age, but at the expense of true vinosity.

In the south of France a description of wine is made called *must*, for which the grapes are trodden and pressed at the vintage, and the juice is clarified immediately, to prevent fermentation. The must is then barrelled, and treated with fumings of sulphur, two or three times repeated. This wine never ferments ; it has a sweetish flavour, with a strong sulphurous odour. It is sometimes called Calabrian wine, and is generally employed to give strength, sweetness, and durability to others deficient in these qualities. The must of wine is further employed by the ingenious inhabitants of the southern districts in making a rich confection in combination with citron and various aromatic sweets. The richer kinds of pears, apples, prunes, melons, mushrooms, and edible roots of various kinds are mashed and mingled with must boiled down to a syrup, till

they are fully incorporated and perfected to the degree required to meet the palate of consumers.

In the island of CORSICA a very excellent variety of grape is grown, called the *sciaccarello*, which yields a wine of good quality. A superior red wine of the sweet class is made at Sarten: it bears a delicious flavour, and is stomachic. For its manufacture the best red grapes are selected, and the stems of the bunches are twisted eight days before the vintage; they are then gathered, and kept eight days more on a floor, when the grapes are removed from the stems and pressed. This wine is so rich and luscious, that it is not fit to drink under two years. It may be kept twenty, and in gaining age it acquires strength, and an exquisite bouquet. The vines of Corsica bear well, and yield sound dry wines equally good with those of the sweet class, but in quantities too small for extensive foreign commerce. This can only proceed from neglect of cultivation, for both soil and clime are eminently suited for the growth of wines equal to those of Spain. The portion exported is generally mingled with boiled wine; this gives it the colour and taste of Malaga, for which it is frequently sold to the merchants of the North on its arrival at the port of Leghorn.

The vine is one of the most important objects of cultivation in France, and the peculiar characteristics that distinguish the produce of the several districts may be thus summarily described:—

1. For the south region the wines are classed under four chief heads,—Roussillon, Languedoc, Provence, and Corsica. Those of Roussillon are produced exclusively in the department of the Pyrénées Orientales: they are strong, rich in colour, and being generous they keep long, travel well, and are good for blending with others. Sweet, dry, and ordinary wines equally abound. Under the name of wines of Languedoc are comprised all the produce of the Hérault, Aude, and a part of Gard. They are full in colour, and of remarkable body and strength. Hérault is the most important wine district in the south of France: its brandy trade has nearly disappeared, but it is the largest producer of raw spirits in Europe. The red varieties are raised

in the vineyards of St. Georges d'Orgues : they are of moderate quality, and generally very heady. The consumption of Muscat, Frontignan, and Lunel has diminished of late years : they possess less flavour, and do not keep so well as the products of Rivesaltes. This celebrated vine-ground is situated two leagues east of Perpignan ; the soil is dry and granitic, and to the casual observer would appear incapable of sustaining any vegetation, yet it yields some of the best muscadine wine known. The Palus lands are so named from their deep and fertile alluvial mould, evidently the accumulated sediment of water over a long period. These wines possess a remarkable bouquet, which savours of the raspberry ; they are not the first in esteem, but as they will bear long sea-voyages well, they are selected for export to America and India. The province of Languedoc was originally planted with vines from Spain, and it is principally Spanish varieties that are still cultivated there, as well as in other southern departments. Hence the close similarity which exists between certain red wines of the Peninsula and those of the south of France.

2. The region of the south-east embraces all the lower part of the basin of the Rhône : the sorts grown there are generally known as wines of the Côte du Rhône. They include the produce of the Gard, Vaucluse, the celebrated Châteauneuf-du-Pape, Ardèche, St. Péray, Hermitage, Côte Rôtie, Condrieux, and some others. The wines of the Rhône, indeed, have one particular advantage : viz. that those endowed with the fullest aroma are raised on the sides of hills having a constant exposure to the rays of a southern sun. This confers a degree of perfection on the grape, and a fruity flavour on the wine, not attainable in Claret, as witness the choicer kinds of Hermitage and Côte Rôtie, and particularly white Hermitage, considered by many of known taste and judgment to be the empress of all wines, especially if kept long enough in bottle to develop its qualities in full perfection. The growths of these localities were formerly of considerable commercial importance, but they are constantly on the decrease, the extent of the vine-grounds being now much reduced. The white wine of St. Péray is dry,

spirituous, and brisk, with an agreeable flavour resembling the odour of the violet ; when made effervescent, it nearly equals Champagne, though of less lightness, delicacy, and softness. It is in much request in Holland, Belgium, and Germany.

3. The eastern region is formed principally of the valley of the Saône, whence come the best products of this part of France. The districts of Beaujolais, the Mâconnais, and the Chalonnaise yield delicate, light, well-flavoured, but not high-coloured wines, which are principally consumed in the interior, and form little or no portion of foreign traffic. In Upper Burgundy, on the contrary, those of the Côte d'Or, so named on account of the richness of the vineyards, are the most famous of their class, and have great value both at home and abroad. Here grow the renowned Chambertin, Beaune, Nuits, Pomard, Volnay, Romanée-Conti, Clos Vougeot, and La Tache, to the excellence and perfection of which the pre-eminence of this province is mainly due. The white kinds in most repute are those of Montrachet, paramount in fragrant delicacy, the buoyant Meursault, and those of Blagny. In Auxerrois are the vineyards of Chablis, whose wines are in much esteem, but under that name large quantities of other growths from the neighbouring estates find their way into the market. The produce of the Jura is characterized generally as brisk, delicate, and light, but with some acidity, attributable to bad cultivation and a careless mixture of the vines. From the Jura are also derived some rose-coloured wines, and the luscious *vin de Garde du Château Chalons*, which requires to be kept twelve or fifteen years in the cask, and then sells at 4 to 6 francs the litre. The products both of Alsace and Lorraine are very common, poor in quality, and seldom exported. This region further embraces the department of the Marne, whose wines, known as Champagne, have a world-wide reputation, and form one of the chief products of the kingdom. Lightness, flavour, transparency, piquancy, and every excellence of the finest descriptions are united in them. They are divided into four varieties,—sparkling, sparkling granot, demi-mousseux, and tisane de Champagne, and sell, according to quality, from 3½ to 6½ francs the bottle on the spot. In good seasons Champagne

produces not less than fifteen million bottles of white wine, but the average yield is about half that quantity.

4. The five departments which compose the central region are the Loiret, Cher, Nièvre, Allier, and Puy de Dôme. The vintages here are inferior in quality, but blend well with more spirituous sorts, and are much used in Paris for that purpose. The only growth worth mention is that of Pouilly, which is in much esteem as a choice dinner wine. It bears a fragrant bouquet, drinks soft and agreeable, is distinguished for its nutty flavour, and in good years will often compare with vintages of much higher pretension. It is said to dispel the languor of over-fatigue and other depressing influences, and to gently stimulate a flagging or exhausted appetite.

5. In the south-western division of France, although the culture of the vine is pursued extensively, the only sections presenting any feature of particular mark are those of the Gironde and Jurançon. The wines of the former are far from being uniform in quality, notwithstanding they possess a common origin, and all pass under the same general denomination. In commerce they are divided into five chief classes,—Médoc, de Graves, de Côtes, Palus, and Entre Deux-mers, the first four only possessing any claim to high repute. The "*grands vins*" of Médoc are composed of five grades. The first rank comprises only the three celebrated growths of the Châteaux Margaux, Lafite, and Latour: the former, less powerful perhaps than the others, has a refined delicacy and rich flavour which have gained it eminence and priority. The "*vins de Graves*" are those grown in the plains around Bordeaux: the name is derived from the soil, which is chiefly composed of small gravel or pebbles called *graves*, or *gravier*: fuller, richer coloured, and more generous than those of neighbouring communes, they carry a dry, flinty taste, and an aroma somewhat resembling clover. The white varieties of Médoc have a universal reputation. Those of Sauterne, Beaumes, and Barjac are fine, limpid, delicate, and much in demand abroad. "*Vins de Côtes*" is the name given to those raised on the left bank of the Garonne, of which the best known is St. Emilion, which, like all wines containing

abundant tannin and natural alcohol, will keep under exceptional conditions, for half a century, an age that no other *vin rouge* of the Gironde will bear without marked deterioration. The Palus wines, grown in the moist and loamy sands of the Gironde, are very high-coloured and vinous, but being deficient in body and briskness, are of little importance compared with the preceding. The plantations of Bergerac, in the Dordogne, furnish samples of high quality, and even in the sterile territory of the Landes, remarkable for its vast plains of ocean sands driven from the sea-shore by the winds over a naturally fertile soil, a common sort is produced which is consumed entirely by its inhabitants. From such poor-looking stony ground a Norfolk farmer would turn with a disdainful smile. Why, thinks he, it's all sand and gravel and shingle, and scorched with the sun. You would not get a blade of chickweed to grow in such a hopeless spot. The wines of Jurançon, in the Basses-Pyrénées, are the most famous of this part of the south of France. The superior white kinds are strong, generous, and well-flavoured. The red wines of Gaillac are in great demand in commerce, and being very full in colour, stout, and spirituous, they are well adapted for the mixing which takes place in the *entrepôt* of Bordeaux. Médoc wines are sent to all parts of Europe, but chiefly to England, Holland, Belgium, and Russia: the first growths are reserved for this country, but before exportation are sometimes dashed with Hermitage, or other generous sorts. The grapes here are picked off the stems before they are placed in the wine-press,—a process fast superseding the ancient custom of crushing the fruit with the feet, which is now deservedly falling into disuse.

6. The western region, not very remarkable for its wines, is one of the richest parts of France, in consequence of its extensive manufacture of brandy. The two departments lying on the banks of the Loire, Indre, and Maine, although possessing numerous vineyards, are of little importance as compared with the Charente. The principal growths,—Joué, Bourgueil, Vouvray, and the white wine of Saumur, are sent to Paris and Belgium only; while the Cognac brandy is esteemed and sought after by all Europe. Of the vine-grounds in the Charente only one-third are

cultivated for wine, the rest being reserved for the fabrication of brandy. More than two million hectolitres are annually devoted in Annis, Saintonge, and Angoumois to distillation, yielding 4 to 500,000 hectolitres of spirits, and from 49 to 50,000,000 francs in value. These figures plainly indicate in what the importance of this region consists, which, in this respect, is unrivalled even by the south of France.

Brandy gains value from age, though it loses strength, especially if kept in too warm a place. One-year-old brandy is called *new*; from one to three years old it is known as *rassis* (stale or mature); and from the fourth year it is considered *old*. Besides the age and potency of the spirit, the soil, the quality and richness of the wine from which it was drawn, and the management of the fire under the still, are material elements in determining the excellence of brandy: and so strongly marked is the spirit with the flavour of the wine from which it was produced, that persons of experience can always tell from what district it comes, as well as from what species of grape. A million and a half hectolitres of wine are annually converted into brandy, the proportion requisite for making one bottle of cognac being five or six bottles of wine in good years, but extending to seven or eight in unpropitious seasons.

The recent conquest from France of Alsace and Lorraine, and the collapse of Gallic authority on the Rhine and Moselle, restore to Germany the bulk of the wines grown on the latter river. Two varieties continue to be raised in the vicinity of Metz, but the quality is inferior. At Château Salins, in old Lorraine, there is a species of vine called *liverdun*, whose properties are singular and its bearing enormous. If the buds are injured by spring frosts, it is observed to put them forth anew, and yet the grape reaches maturity in due time. The quantity of juice given out by its fruit is immense, often amounting to one hundred hectolitres per hectare. This would seem almost incredible, and yet is within the truth, the mean product being nearer a hundred and twenty than to one hundred.

The average wine production of France has been computed at 50,000,000 hectolitres, valued at 155,000,000 francs, and forming

the means of subsistence to seven millions of vintagers. The total exports in 1870 amounted to 66,456,970 gallons, and 8,673,040*l.*, in value,—a large contribution for a country which, notwithstanding the drawback of considerable tracts of sterile as well as forest lands, and defective practical husbandry, produces corn and cattle for a growing population thirty-six millions in number.

The appropriation by the rural community is proportionately large. An official inquest made in 1850 gives the increase in the consumption of wine in the provinces between the years 1830 and 1847 as equal to 98 per cent. "In the rural districts we give to the agricultural labourers 700 litres a year, and to the women 350. The men who work in the vineyards are allowed from 3 to 4 litres a day, and are none the worse for it. If the octroi duties were removed, the consumption in Paris and the principal towns would increase enormously." Rich as she unquestionably is in the fruits of the earth, and excellent as is the produce of her innumerable vineyards, it is much to be deplored that any sons of France should lend their ingenuity to counterfeit a beneficent gift of Nature, which, in a more legitimate way, is so much better done for them. But so it is, and one at least of its towns seems ambitious of outvying the sinister reputation of Hamburg, the great industrial seat for the manufacture of various fictitious liquors. A recent number of the *Moniteur Industriel* (Sept. 1866) further complains that "among the white French wines imported into England are included imitations of Sherry and Madeira proceeding from Cette and Marseilles, where the 'real nutty flavour' is skilfully imparted by the aid of chemical compounds. Probably Picardan wines find a certain sale in the English market, to be doctored into Sherry." Commercial cunning, indeed, and the greed of gain have no limits, and numerous spirituous compounds are unblushingly palmed off on the credulous under the honoured name of wine, innocent though they be of any community with the juice of the grape. The harbour of Cette, situate on the shores of the Mediterranean, has long been conspicuous for its extensive deportation to most parts of the world. More than

3,000 persons are here engaged in the fabrication of imitation wines. These clever folk can imitate any vintage in the world, save, it is said, the wines of Bordeaux, the aroma of which defies their utmost skill. According to the testimony of an observant tourist, Cette is a large and thriving manufacturing place; but what they manufacture there is neither of cotton or wool, Rheims biscuits or Perigord pies,—but wine.

“*Ici*,” our author goes on to say, “will a Cette merchant write, with the greatest coolness, over his warehouse gates,—‘*Ici on fabrique des vins*.’ All the wines in the world, indeed, are made in Cette. You have only to give an order for Johannisberger or Tokay,—nay, for all I know, for the Falernian of the Romans or the Nectar of the gods,—and the Cette manufacturers will promptly supply you. They are great chemists, these gentlemen, and have brought the noble art of adulteration to a perfection which would make our own mere logwood and sloe-juice practitioners pale and wan with envy. But the great trade of the place is not so much adulterating as concocting wine. Cette is well situated for this notable manufacture. The wines of southern Spain are brought by coasters from Barcelona and Valencia. The inferior Bordeaux growths come pouring in from the Garonne by the Canal du Midi, and the hot and fiery Rhône wines are floated along the chains of ponds and canals from Beaucaire. With all these raw materials, and of course a chemical laboratory to boot, it would be hard if the clever folks of Cette could not turn out a very good imitation of any wine in demand. They will doctor you up bad Bordeaux with violet powder and rough cider, colour it with cochineal and turnsole, and outswear creation that it is precious Château Margaux: vintage of ’25 Champagne, of course, they make by hogsheads. Do you wish the sweet liqueur wines from Italy and the Levant? The Cette people will mingle old Rhône wines with boiled sweet wines from the neighbourhood of Lunel, and charge you any price per bottle. Do you wish to make new Claret old? A Cette manufacturer will place it in his oven, and, after twenty-four hours’ regulated application of heat, return it to you, nine years in bottle. Port, Sherry, and Madeira are fabricated in abundance, with any sort of bad cheap wine, and brandy for a stock, with half the concoctions in a druggist’s shop for seasoning. Cette, in fact, is the very capital and emporium of the tricks and rascalities of the wine trade, and it supplies almost all the Brazils, and a great proportion of the northern European nations, with their after-dinner drinks. To the grateful Yan-

kees it sends out thousands of tuns of Ay and Moët, besides no end of Johannisberger, Hermitage, and Château Margaux, the fine qualities and dainty aroma of which are highly prized by the transatlantic amateurs. The Dutch flag fluttered plentifully in the harbour, so that I presume Mynheer is a customer to the Cette industrials, or, at all events, he helps in the distribution of their wares. The old French West-Indian colonies also patronise their ingenious countrymen of Cette ; and Russian magnates get drunk on Chambertin and Romanée Conti made of low Rhône and low Burgundy beverages, eked out by the contents of the graduated phial. I fear, however, that we do come in—as to ‘fine golden Sherries at 22s.9½d a dozen,’ or ‘peculiar old crusted Port at 1s.9d.’—for a share of the Cette crafty manufactures ; and it is very probable that, after the wine is fabricated on the shores of the Mediterranean, it is still further improved upon the banks of the Thames.”—*Claret and Olives*, by ANGUS B. RÉACH, 1852.

The grape blight first showed itself in France in the year 1850, when it infested some of the vineyards in the vicinity of Paris. In 1851 it extended its destructive course throughout the kingdom, attaining its maximum of virulence in 1854, from which time may be dated the decrease of the distemper, and consequent improvement of the vintages of subsequent seasons. The amount of loss sustained from its ravages can hardly be estimated, but the direful effects of the visitation were painfully manifest, and much apprehension prevailed as to its permanent influence on the future of the grape. The immediate results were the destruction of a multitude of vines, a reduction of the wine harvest to one-fifth of its usual average, and the compulsion on the part of France, for the first time in her history, to become an importer of wine from the adjacent peninsula, and of spirits from the island of Great Britain.






SECTION IX.

“The German wine
Will warm the chine,
And frisk in every vein;
But that’s not all,—
He’s much too small
To be our Sovereign.”—JORDAN’S *Fancy Festivals*: 1696.

The Wines of Germany and Switzerland.

N the remoter periods of European civilization the geographical position of Germany, which stretched over a third part of the western Continent, presented formidable obstacles to the plantation and successful treatment of the vine in that country. It is a common opinion among modern writers, that the Continent was much colder formerly than it is now, and the most ancient descriptions of the northern climate go far to confirm their theory. Still the reiterated complaints of intense frost and eternal winter from natives of the benignant climes of Greece and Asia fall with less weight, since we possess no means of testing their opinions by the more definite results of a thermometrical standard. It is, however, recorded both by Diodorus and Herodian, that the great rivers which covered the Roman provinces,—the Rhine and the Danube, were frequently frozen over, and capable of supporting the most enormous weights. The barbarians transported without apprehension or danger their numerous armies, their cavalry and their heavy waggons, over a vast and solid bridge of ice. Modern ages have not presented an instance of a similar phenomenon. It is further stated, by Ovid as well as by Virgil, that on the Danube the wine, when brought to table, was often frozen into great lumps,—*frusta vini*. The labours of ten centuries sufficiently explain the causes of a diminution of the cold. The vast and endless

forests have been gradually cleared, the morasses drained, and in proportion as the soil was brought under cultivation, the air was rarefied and became more temperate and propitious.

It is difficult to ascertain the influence of the climate over the minds and bodies of the ancient Germans. In their primitive state they were destitute of those arts and refinements which elevate the human mind, and passed their lives in a state of gaming and drinking, ignorance and poverty. Strong beer was a liquor sufficiently enticing to satisfy the purposes of ordinary German intemperance ; but those who had tasted the rich wine of Italy or of Gaul, sighed for that more delicious abettor of inebriety. "The excessive thirst for strong liquors," Gibbon tells us, "often urged the barbarians to invade the provinces on which art or nature had bestowed those much-envied boons. The Tuscan who betrayed his country to the Celtic nations attracted them into Italy by the prospect of the rich fruits and delicious wines, the productions of a happier region. And, in the same manner, the German auxiliaries, invited into France during the civil wars of the sixteenth century, were allured by the promise of plenteous quarters in the provinces of Champagne and Burgundy."—vol. i. ch. 9.

Various epochs have been assigned for the introduction of grape-culture, and while some go so far back as the Asiatic Bacchus, others are content to ascribe the first plantings to the emperor Probus, himself the son of a gardener, who about the year 280 A.D. directed the re-plantation of the vine in western Europe, where for nearly two centuries its culture had been prohibited by his predecessors. That no vineyards existed at the period when Tacitus wrote his description of that country is manifest, for he asserts that the soil was unfavourable to every sort of fruit tree,—the usual beverage of the people being a kind of beer procured from wheat or barley, and foreign wines only to be met with in the neighbourhood of the greater rivers. Whether, in the course of the two following centuries, the climate could have undergone sufficient amelioration to allow of this branch of agriculture seems very doubtful ; but it is not unlikely that the Germans derived the first vines from their Roman

conquerors. Be that as it may, there has been a gradual and sufficient improvement in temperature to admit of a free growth of the grape even beyond the line assigned for its successful propagation in France.

The earliest German vineyards on a large scale were laid out with plants brought from Italy on lands surrounding Spires, Worms, and Mayence-on-the-Oder, and first at Franconia near Würzburg, in the year 458. On the Oder and the Neisse, it is said that the foundation of the flourishing viticulture, which to this day still reigns there, was laid in 1154. Probably that of Spain and Portugal is equally old, whilst in the middle of the thirteenth century Hungary received its first consignment of vine-roots, also from Italy. Whoever in more recent days has visited the Rhine must have felt sensible of the present beauty of its vineyards overlaying steep and shore, interlaced with romantic ruins, towns ancient and venerable, smiling villages, and the rapid broad German river reflecting the rich scenery on its banks. Nowhere is the fondness for vine-cultivation more evident, in every grade and class, than in the German wine districts. The humblest peasant has his square yard of vinery; every accessible spot on the declivities is decorated with the benignant plant; landscapes of greater beauty and luxuriance are elsewhere seldom seen.

From the borders of Switzerland to the confluence of the Moselle, the Rhine and its tributaries traverse regions often described as the 'gardens of the vine;' and between Mayence and Coblenz it flows between hills scarped and terraced to the summit, and yielding those vintages which have conferred celebrity on the district known as the Rheingau. The river in its progress fringes the southern and western frontier of Baden, whose vine-grounds are of large extent; and amongst the most abundant produce of its orchards and gardens are plums and cherries, from the latter of which comes the delicious Kirchwasser. The territory of Baden is, for the most part, of a hilly character, interspersed with pleasant and fertile valleys, with gentle undulations of the sunniest aspect. The mountainous range of the Black Forest (*Schwarzwald*) pervades the entire

length of this principality, trending northwards as far as the Neckar. Its loftiest peaks reach an elevation little short of 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and the snows of winter which gather round them endure for a lengthened portion of the year. Even the pine and other hardy trees scarcely thrive near the summit, whilst the lower declivities are forest-covered throughout, and the gentler slopes of granite rock, and enclosed valleys towards the foot of the range, are enriched with prolific vineyards and orchards. From Bonn to Coblenz, and from thence to Mayence, the country is clothed with a picturesque verdure; the slopes of the steep hills are mostly well timbered and fertile; and it is between the two latter places that all the finest produce of Germany is grown. On both sides of the river extensive plantations abound, yielding a profusion of serviceable wines, supporting a numerous population, and lending an air of animation and fertility to the scene, which forms an agreeable contrast to the ruins and vestiges of feudal grandeur that crown the prominent heights. The choicest vintages, however, are confined to a small portion of the Rheingau, extending for nine or ten miles on the right bank of the river, from a little below Mentz to Rüdesheim; but the produce of some of the vines above Mentz, particularly of those at Hochheim on the banks of the Mayne, is usually classed with the best Rhine wines, being of nearly equal excellence.

The past history of the Black Forest is peculiar and one of much interest, and its terrors and mysteries are indelibly stamped on the mind and creed of an imaginative and superstitious people. It constitutes a portion of the vast Hercynian mountain range, spreading from Alpine Switzerland to the confines of Persia, and derives its name from the dark tint of its foliage. Infested, it was verily believed, by evil spirits in every form, a safe retreat for the murderous outlaw, and the scene of many a cruel outrage, it was long the chosen field for mythical legend and German romance. Tradition traces back its horrors to a period anterior to Roman domination; Cæsar describes it as requiring a nine days' journey to cross it,—some parts, though

travelled over for sixty days successively, presenting no boundaries or apparent limit; and Pliny has left on record this striking description of some of the features of its singular scenery. "The huge trees of this boundless forest, whose gigantic oaks, uninjured by the lapse of ages, and cotemporary with the world itself by their near approach to immortality, surpass all other marvels known. Not to speak of other matters that would exceed all belief, it is a well-known fact that hills are raised by the repercussion with each other of the gnarled sylvan roots; and where the earth does not follow them, arches arise aloft reaching to the very branches; and, as they contend for the mastery, form arcades like so many open portals, and large enough to admit the passage of a squadron of horse."—(b. xvi. c. 2.)

The climate of some parts of Germany is milder than its geographical position might at first lead us to expect. Except the Alps, none of its mountains rise to the snow-line, and a great portion of the north-western provinces opening well to the sea, profits by the genial breezes that commonly prevail. The valley of the Rhine, too, being deeply sunk between hilly ranges of great elevation, enjoys a fine and salubrious atmosphere of a high annual temperature, with a mild winter and a summer not too hot,—incidents highly conducive to the perfection of the grape. The Rheingau is the most northern point of our globe where high-class wines can be grown. The sole grape from which such wines are made is the hardy *riesling*, which matures later than any other variety; and it is for this reason, and after the most careful treatment, that in very propitious seasons only can a really fine wine be produced. The special requirements needed for the production of wines of the first grade are, an early spring, a serene atmosphere during the period of efflorescence, and continuous bright and calm weather from the end of October to the 20th or 25th of November—a seasonal combination, it must be confessed, too precarious to ensure annual vintages of uniform quality.

The vinous productions of Germany may be considered as

constituting a distinct order by themselves, being distinguished by a delicacy of flavour and aroma which it would be scarcely possible to appropriately describe. Of late years, unceasing attention has been bestowed on their tillage, and by judicious improvements, and a better manipulation of the details, they are greatly advanced in quality. Some of them have what the French call the *goût de pierre*; but as the soils are very various, so no two growths exactly resemble each other, even to a taste not over fastidious. The vintage does not commence until the grapes are more than fully mature,—indeed, until they begin to shrivel from over ripeness, and are on the verge of decay. They are then carefully gathered, and the imperfect berries separated and put aside with the stalks and other leafy surplus. The more celebrated of these wines, after being fermented in separate casks and repeatedly racked, are suffered to remain in huge vats, to perfect by time. Until three or four years old they seldom get in fine condition; the flavour and bouquet are not developed in less time, nor will they sooner bear transport. They mellow best in large vessels; hence the renowned Heidelberg tun, 31 feet long by 21 feet high, and holding six hundred hogsheads; it is artistically embellished with all kinds of fantastic devices. Tübingen, Grüningen, and Königstein could all boast of their enormous tuns, the latter being sufficiently capacious to store 3709 hogsheads. Thus the wines of the Rhine, of the Palatinate, and of Alsace, from long storage in such vast bulk, not only became stronger as they got older, but also more tart to the palate. This is one reason why very old Rhenish is less often preferred. As their white wines were considered to mature better thus than in casks of ordinary dimensions, they were usually kept carefully filled. The Germans ever had credit for being excellent toppers, and of taking care of “the liquor they loved,” of which these huge reservoirs may be regarded as no unapt semblance: hence, too, the saying, “Frenchmen drink when they feel happy: the Germans feel happy when they drink.”

“But the most celebrated wine-store in all Germany,” it is said, “has its seat in the municipal vault of the ancient free city of Bremen.

One compartment of this capacious receptacle,—called *the Rose*, from the bronze bas-relief of roses surmounting it,—contains the far-famed Rosenwein, now two centuries and a half old. There, so far back as the year 1624, were deposited six substantial vats of the finest Johannisberger, and the like number of Hochheimer. In an adjacent section stand twelve other large casks, each named after one of the twelve Apostles, filled with wines no less precious, although not so aged by a few years as the contents of the former : the first in quality, we are told, is that under the immediate tutelage of Judas. In other parts of the cellar are ranged barrels of similar produce of a still younger vintage. By degrees, and as a small quantity of the Rosenwein is drawn off, the bulk is restored by an equal measure of Apostle wine ; that, again, is replenished by some of the later growth, and so with the rest, in such manner that all the casks are kept constantly full. From the great length of time that has since elapsed, a single bottle of Rosenwein, in value, may be said to represent a very large sum, and some ingenious editors of the German press have amused a leisure hour in computing the actual expense incurred in the acquisition of so peerless a cordial. Assuming that in 1624 the value of a cask of the wine selected, containing 1,000 bottles, was equal to 1,200 francs, and allowing an annual percentage for cellarage and waste, they reckon the actual cost of a single bottle at the incredible sum of 10,895,232 francs ; and a single tumbler, or the eighth part of a bottle, as equivalent in price to 1,361,904 francs : a sumptuous potion truly, and sufficiently extravagant, one might think, to shame the ostentatious ambition of Cleopatra herself. This Rosenwein and Apostle liqueur is never sold but to citizens of Bremen. The burgomasters alone have permission to draw a few bottles, and to send them as presents to sovereign princes. An inhabitant, in case of serious illness, may procure a bottle at twenty francs, on his obtaining a certificate from his medical attendant and the consent of the municipal council. A citizen has also the right of demanding a bottle when he receives any personage of celebrity under his roof as a guest. For many successive years a bottle of the Rosenwein was sent by the city to the eminent Goëthe, to enable him worthily to celebrate his *fête-day*."

It is commonly supposed in this country, that the wines of the Rhine and Moselle are naturally acid : the inferior kinds may often be so, but this is not their constant character. In favourable seasons they are free from acidity ; in bad seasons they contract an excess of malic acid, and are consequently liable to the attendant imperfections. Hence the vintages

secured in warm and dry summers, such as 1811, or 'the year of the comet' as it is sometimes called, are always in great demand, and fetch exorbitant prices. Their chief distinction, however, is their extreme durability, in which they are not surpassed by any other species of wine. While strong southern growths suffer from age after a certain period in bottle, Rhenish wines seem endowed with inextinguishable vitality: formerly they had no place at the tables of the wealthy before they were nearly, if not quite, fifty years old. They are drunk from green-tinted glasses, as thin almost as paper, which it is thought imparts to the draught a greater zest, yet seeming to the stranger almost too fragile to contain the liquid, which, notwithstanding its meagre-looking limpidity, possesses sufficient stamina to encounter great extremes of temperature. The winters in Germany are very severe, and it occasionally happens that new wine gets frozen. To recover it, racking into sulphured casks is the usual remedy, with the addition of a little spirit. It is the aqueous portion of the wine that congeals. This furnished wine-growers with a hint, which they were not slow in adopting; viz. to expose their wine to a frost strong enough to solidify a good portion of the watery part, and then rack off the residue, which is found to be improved both in body and flavour. Ancient writers bear witness to the fact, that during the Augustan age the seasons were frequently so severe in some parts of Germany, that wine froze in the casks, and had to be cut out for use with hatchets. This would not be very improbable where the cold is sufficiently intense to congeal the contents of the vessel entirely through. Old continental almanacks preserve the remembrance of many curious meteorological phenomena, that otherwise may have passed into oblivion. The winters of 358, 763, 801, and 822 are described as particularly rigorous. In 1067, 1210, 1305, 1354, 1358, 1361, 1364, and 1408 the hatchet was resorted to for the supply of rations of wine for the French armies. In 1544 wine froze in the casks. It was not until the year 1605 that the thermometer was first employed to measure the intensity of heat and cold; before that date the actual temperature of the seasons was never ascer-

tained, and the ranges of the fluctuations were necessarily conjectural. Such perilous extremes of winter cold, however, were not always confined to the more northern portions of continental Europe; nor did our own insular position always preserve us from the recurrence of a season of exceptional severity, two notable instances of which are thus recorded in Holinshed's *Chronicles* :—

“ In the winter which brought to a close the eleventh century, and again in the daies of king James the First, sundree strange and monstrous things chanced in Scotland. In the harvest before the king's death [1347] a blazing star was seene, with long streaming beams; and in the winter following the frost was so vehement, and continued so long, that till mid-March no plough might be put into the ground. All was frozen in such wise within houses and cellers, that both ale and wine were sold by the pound weight, and then melted against the fire.”

The great frost of 1706, records another historical authority, “ was so terribly severe, that a number of people, fruit trees, and sown seed perished by the cold. This hard winter occasioned a very great scarcity, and excessively raised the price of all manner of provisions, especially in France, where almost all the vines were frost-nipped to the very roots, so that of many years before that kingdom had not been in so deplorable a situation. The treasury was exhausted by the expense of the war; trade was interrupted by the number of ships the two maritime powers kept constantly cruising in all parts of the seas to prevent the importation of goods; the farmer was not only incapable of paying his rent, but of even supplying the towns with necessary provisions;— in a word, they were in the utmost desolation. To the cries of the miserable harassed people were joined public acts of devotion to appease the anger of heaven, to deprecate their then present miseries, and to obtain a speedy peace, which they looked upon as the only remedy to these oppressive evils.”—*De Foe*.

As the growths of Germany contain little more than half the quantity of alcoholic spirit usually found in Madeira wine, and as this amount is often reduced by long keeping so low as 7 or 8 per cent., it is evident that the conservative power does not reside in the spirituous property of these liquors. Their dryness proves that the saccharine matter, which is seldom in great abundance in the Rhenish grape, has been fully decomposed, and

from their brightness it may be inferred that the vegetive leaven has been entirely precipitated. It is to the presence of a large proportion of tartaric acid, not easily separated, that we may look for their chief preservative quality. Even in some of the stronger and more perfect kinds, as Sherry and Madeira, a slight deposit is perceptible when kept long in bottle: but their ample fermentation and abundant alcohol ensure them from any further change. With most light wines, however, this is not the case. Their feebleness will not admit the deposit of any portion of the tartar without risking their total ruin; but in Rhenish wines, not even the evaporation occasioned by long keeping in the wood is sufficient to derange the affinities. The proportion of alcohol, doubtless, is sensibly diminished, and the wine becomes more tart than before; yet this acidity is still very distant from vinegar, and by no means ungrateful to the palate, whilst the colour is heightened, and the peculiar fragrance and flavour are more fully developed. Professor Liebig, in his analytical investigations, attributes the fulness of their bouquet to the action of the free acid in which all German wines abound; and he is decidedly of opinion that it is from the tartar they contain their most valuable hygienic properties are derived. Acids, however, are said to generate gout, and on that account German wines, in England, are forbidden to patients subject to that disease; this, probably, is but a vulgar error, for the gout is a malady rarely known on the banks of the Rhine, where hardly any other wine is in use. In certain calcareous complaints, and in severe attacks of calculus and other urinary affections, the light and pure wines of Germany have been resorted to with extraordinary benefit, and it is a proverb with the natives that "good Hock keeps off the doctor." And so, we may conclude, thought the laureate Southey, when, on a summer's ramble in Germany, he wrote, "Certain it is that the continued exercise, change of air, and excitement agreed admirably with me, to say nothing of the wine, which every where about the Rhine is the true Amreeta,* and deserves to be called the 'liquor of life;' . . . and so Pindar would have said, if he had ever tasted it."—*Select Letters*, iii. 74.

* The Hindoos, resting on their ancient *Vedas*, recognise a celestial Amrita

The whole eastern bank of the Rhine has been remarkable for its vines during many centuries. It extends, as already noted, from Mentz to Rüdesheim, covering a space of rather more than nine miles in length by about four in breadth. The entire district, known as the Rheingau, is a delightful vine garden, and was once the property of the Church. The bend which the river here assumes is said to have the effect of concentrating the sun's rays, reflected as by a mirror from the surface of the water on the vine-clad slopes; and it is to this circumstance, combined with the favourable nature of the soil, and to the site being completely sheltered from the blighting north winds by the Taurus lofty range, that the marked superiority of the vintages of this locality is ordinarily to be attributed. The higher Rhenish grades come from the duchy of Nassau,—foremost in character being the renowned Johannisberger. On a crescent hill of red soil, stands this far-famed vineyard, which is indebted for its celebrity to the high flavour and perfume of its produce, with the advantage of entire freedom from acidity. The quantity manufactured is not very large. The ground was first planted by the monks of the abbey of Johannisberg, and is now the property of prince Von Metternich. The soil is composed of the *débris* of various-coloured stratified marl: the grapes are gathered as late as the season will permit. Of the choicer samples, the portion permitted to come into the market is limited; but some of the growth at the foot of the hill is always to be had, and even this is preferable in point of quality to most of the neighbouring vintages, and bears a corresponding price. Adhering to an old custom, there is still a law enforced in the Rheingau, which provides that in autumn, until the time of the general ripening of the grapes, the vineyards shall be closed to every one, even the vintagers themselves. In southern Tyrol a special warden of the vines, fantastically accoutred in plume and spear, somewhat in the fashion of Papageno, watches (ambrosia), that drops from the imperishable Asvattha or peepul tree, out of which the immortals shaped the heaven and the earth. Beneath this mighty and fostering tree, which spreads its branches over the third heaven, dwell the souls of the pious dead, and quaff the drink of immortality with the gods.—KELLY'S *Curiosities of Indo-European Tradition and Folk-Lore*.

over the rapidly maturing fruit, now profusely watered by artificial irrigation in order to swell the berries more rapidly, a process, however, of doubtful advantage to them. By such a conservative prelude it is thought, in the general interest of viticulture, to be wise and proper to restrain all, even by law, to await a certain perfection of the fruit, in order everywhere to obtain wine of equal excellence, and to maintain the reputation of the country's growth. In northern Germany it is supposed that at vintages in the south a feast is held, and luscious grapes allowed, without let or hindrance, to fall into the open mouths of the joyous throng; still the thrifty vintager thinks far more of a copious wine-press than of gratifying his palate. On the Johannisberg estate it is strictly prohibited to abstract a single berry. The pickers are compensated for this abstention, and a precious wine is proportionately augmented. In 1873 prince Metternich disposed of the last and largest cask of the famous vintage of 1861 to M. Bauer, consul at Moscow, at a price higher than ever before paid in the Rheingau. The cask contained 1,500 bottles, the cost of each bottle to the purchaser being as much as 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*

Johannisberger at its best,—that is, when its excess of sugar has become converted into alcohol, is a rich, limpid, magnificent amber-coloured wine, forming beads around the glass, tasting singularly fresh in the mouth, deliciously soft, yet with a firm and almost pungent flavour, and possessed of a bouquet of rare fragrance and strength. Next to this in rank may be placed the produce of the Steinberg vine. It is the strongest of all the Rhine wines, and possesses much softness and delicacy of flavour. Some persons give the preference to Rüdesheimer, which contains a high flavour with much body, and is freer from acidity than most other growths. The rock here, consisting of micaceous schist, is in many places entirely denuded; whilst the acclivity is so steep as to necessitate the formation of a considerable portion into terraces, which are kept covered with a sufficient quantity of vegetable mould and dressing, carried up in baskets. These terraces are flanked by walls of masonry from 5 to 10 ft. high, and the breadth of some of the ledges on which the vines are planted is not more than twice the height of the wall. To

reach many of these narrow plots the villagers must scale the precipices, and hang, as it were, from the face of the rocks, which they do without fear or hesitation, and the life of the Rheinland vine-dresser presents a rare example of patient industry and perseverance. The site offers a favourable exposure, and the slaty soil of the hills, retaining the intense heat of the sun some time after the close of day, allows the grapes to ripen fully, and helps to realize the eminence the wine has attained. Gräfenberg, once the appanage of the wealthy convent of Eberbach, produces very choice wine, which carries a price equal to the Rüdesheimer; whilst Markbrunne and Rothenberg afford other varieties prized for their smooth and delicate aroma. The Hochheimer is, strictly speaking, a Mayne wine. The town itself stands in the midst of vineyards, and from its name is derived the term Hock, as too commonly applied in England to all wine of German origin. Old Hock is the kind of light wine of which people may drink copious draughts without being much affected; indeed all its disturbing influences soon subside, possessing nothing very powerful, nourishing, or lasting. In other respects Hock is innocent, pleasing, and wholesome, and may be freely used by all persons in good health. Than the finer growths of the Rhine there are no better made white wines in the world, which, except in the case of the sweet *auslesen*, are always perfectly fermented; but, unfortunately, their higher qualities are entirely dependent on the perfect ripening of the grapes, which, in so northern a latitude, is a matter of considerable uncertainty. During the last twenty years there have been but seven good, with nine bad, and four medium vintages of Rhine wines.

Most of the other growths of the upper and lower Rhine can only be classed with first-rate ordinary kinds, and the produce of the vine-grounds of the Moselle, although of a pleasant flavour, are generally light and acidulous: the most celebrated is the Brauneberger, and the varieties raised near Trèves are numerous. A Dutch merchant, in 1793, is said to have paid the abbey of Maximus for a vintage called Gruenhäuser, no less than 1,144 florins for 290 English gallons in the vat. This wine was formerly known as the "Nectar of the Moselle." In its use it

was said seldom to elevate persons above the point of cheerfulness even after pretty deep potations, and proved quite innocuous the next day, as it left the head and system free from nausea or disorder. Being light and dry, of a pleasant flavour and high aroma, the better sorts of Moselle have been regarded with partiality in this country ; but they sometimes contract a slaty taste from the strata on which they grow. Those of the sparkling class possess many agreeable properties, and of that character are the wines of Scharzofberg, Josephshofer, and some others ; but they are entirely wanting in the delicious aroma that belongs to the *vins mousseux* of France, for that distinctive property is derived from the soil, which no art can substitute. Besides, there is an immense difference between the Rhenish kinds and those of Champagne, for the grape of the former, to be really good, requires the fullest maturity, even to a rotten state, whilst the latter does not admit of the fruit being more than freshly ripe ; consequently, the good properties secured to Rhenish produce by so protracted a vintage are for the most part lost when applied to the formation of an effervescing wine.

The red wines of the Rhine inherit little or no superiority over the white varieties. The Asmannhäusen, produced from vines originally brought from Burgundy, perhaps is the best, and will compare favourably with some of the better growths of France. Königsbach, on the left bank of the river ; Kesseling, Altenahr, and some others, furnish red sorts of fair average quality. One of the earliest completed vintages is the Deidesheimer Kirchenstück, a syrupy, golden-tinted variety of excessive richness, and yet but little known, being mostly sold as one or other prime growth of the Rheingau. The Liebfrauenmilch, a stout and full-flavoured wine, figures on the *vin-cartes* of German hotels as the *premier crû* of Rhenish Hessia. The attraction evidently lies in the name, which, with one exception, that of the renowned Johannisberger, is commercially speaking the most popular among the copious Rhenish nomenclature. The vineyards are situate on the outskirts of Worms, and its people are as proud of its Liebfrauenmilch as of its connexion with the Protestant Reformation. The grounds, barely eight acres in

extent, are enclosed with high walls, and the wine is thought to owe its superiority over the neighbouring produce to the shelter afforded by the elevated walls of the *hôtel-de-ville*. Of the remaining Rhenish wines there are few that call for particular notice. The Germans themselves say, "Rhine wine good; Neckar, pleasant; Frankfort bad; Moselle innocent." It is somewhat noteworthy, too, that the vines transplanted from the Rhine to Greece during the sway of king Otho obtained high commendation, as combining the bouquet of Germany with the rich fulness of Greece.

The banks of the Neckar are known to yield a red sort, of tolerable character and bouquet; but as we advance farther south the vintages degenerate, and in the Austrian states the wines are nearly all of inferior quality, being crude, and often very acid. Nevertheless, from long use the natives prefer them to any others, and even consider their tartness a criterion of excellence. Among such devoted toppers of what in very many instances is unquestionably highly acid, there may be as much enjoyable reality as sharp satire appertaining to an execrable drink called "*Dreimänner wein*," (three-men's wine,) because it is so sour that it takes two men to compel a third one to drink it; or in expressions like "*Strumpf wein*," (stocking-wine,) so termed because its acidity is so great, that it draws together holes in the stockings on the feet. The better kinds of German produce are thought to be the most wholesome in the world, and the golden wine of the 'father river,' fully deserves its altar to Bacchus.

In *BAVARIA* the people are more remarkable for their love and immoderate consumption of beer than for any unworthy subjection to the juice of the grape; yet the famous 'Stein' wines, grown there in considerable abundance, are held in much favour in the north of Europe for their agreeable aroma and potency. Of these the Rieslinger ranks the highest. It is grown on a hill of considerable elevation, sold very dear, and called 'wine of the Holy Spirit' by the hospitallers of Würzburg, to whom it belongs. At the royal palace an immense quantity is kept always in store in the vast cellars of the Bavarian monarch.

In the kingdom of WURTEMBERG vine cultivation is extensively fostered. Its chief city, Stuttgart, though but of small repute for the virtue of fragrance, is pleasantly situated in a complete basin, surrounded by magnificent hills, which are covered with the mantling graces of the vine. There is said to be so many grapes here, that unless they were gathered, converted into wine, and consumed, they would burst on the hill sides, run down on the town, and overwhelm the thirsty natives in their fruity stream. Be this romance or not, the eye, certainly, may range over miles and miles of vineyards, which yield considerable quantities of excellent wine in several varieties, among which the 'riesling Cabinet' and a sparkling 'Neckar-wien' are held in much esteem by the residents, and deserve the commendation they receive.

The numerous vine-grounds of the PALATINATE lie towards the north of the Vosges, and are well sheltered from strong or injurious winds by the mountain range on the frontier of Rhenish Bavaria, whilst securing for the vines the full benefit of the sun's rays. The soil is chiefly of alluvial origin, and the southern exposures are profusely covered with the vine. The mode of training pursued here is peculiar, and known as 'the double chamber process.' The wines raised are of medium good quality, and often preferred for their acidulous freshness. The Moselle river springs from the western slopes of the Vosges, and flows into the Rhine near Coblenz. Its undulating banks in Lorraine are mostly covered with vines, the general quality of their produce being similar to Rhine wine. Owing to their natural deficiency of character an artificial flavour is imparted by a tincture made from the flowers of the elder-bush, which simulates the bouquet of wine made from the muscatel grape. This preparation is freely used in the production of sparkling Moselle, which is much liked for its low alcoholicity and pleasing briskness. Much of this wine is made at Coblenz, and large quantities are manufactured from Rhine wine at Mayence.

The grapes of Meran, situate in the southern Tyrol, enjoy a wide reputation for their singular efficacy in the work of the German 'grape-cure.' The town itself, formerly the capital of

the old counts of Tyrol, is now but a picturesque relic of the past, its present activity centering in the numerous surrounding villas and hotels constructed for the reception of the strangers who come hither to pass the winter, or to profit from the remedial process of its vinous panacea. It is not a little delightful, when seated among the trellised vines, to see the heavy pendant clusters, half-a-dozen or more on one stock, ripe, juicy, and sweet,—the black, moreover, distinguished by a peculiar dash of the muscat flavour, which is supposed to contain the inherent curative property,—or to contemplate the mixture of German and Italian characteristics on the debatable ground between the two nationalities.

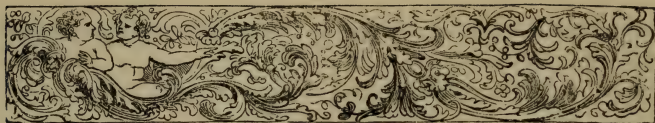
Running through the Alpine mountain range, with its icy glaciers and peaks of perpetual snow, SWITZERLAND might have fairly claimed exemption from all allegiance or participation in the culture of the vine, or adding in any degree to the general store of its exhilarating produce; such a barren issue, however, does not prove to be the case, and her contribution to the vinous commonwealth is neither sparse nor useless. With every disadvantage of her northern latitude, she is equal to the production of a good and wholesome beverage in sufficient quantity to meet the requirements of her own people, with somewhat even to spare. The wine of Switzerland in most repute is raised in the canton of the Grisons: it has an aromatic flavour, is white from a red grape, and known as Chiavenna wine. At Sierre, in the Valais district, they make a Malvasia also of good quality, and both are of the luscious kind. The white Yvorne of Bex is likewise held in much esteem. The best red varieties of the valley of the Rhône are grown at Viesch (pronounced *visp*), and at Sion. The former, called Salquener, and obtained from a small black grape in the vale of Zermatt, is a pleasant wine, of good body, flavour, and bouquet; its familiar appellation is *vin d'enfer*, and its German name is Salgetsch. The Sion variety called Baliot is but little inferior in quality, and the produce of La Marque and Amigny, in the commune of Martigny, is in good repute.

Good red wines come from the canton of Neuchâtel, and much of tolerable quality is grown at Schaffhausen. At Basle

they make the 'wine of blood,' so named from the combat of Birs, in the reign of Louis XI., when sixteen hundred Swiss contended with thirty thousand French: of the former only sixteen survived, more dying from fatigue and exhaustion than by the arms of their foes. The canton of Vaud contains gentle hills and fruitful valleys, which slope gradually down from the Jura to the northern shores of the lake of Geneva, and their produce ranks among the best growths of Switzerland, being fine, strong, and aromatic, slightly acid, and pleasant to the taste. The Lausanne vintages resemble the dry wines of the Rhine in quality, and will keep well. The red of Berne is good; but the climate generally is too cold to furnish any of prime quality. In many places around Geneva the vine is cultivated chiefly for the supply of grapes for table use.

The growths of the Valteline are sound, of good quality, and remarkable for their durability. A very generous wine is also made in this district from the red grape, which is suffered to hang on the vine till November. When thus fully matured it is gathered, taken to a large store-room, and hung up by the stems for several weeks. The bunches are then carefully examined and every decayed or injured berry thrown aside, so that none but sound fruit is reserved for the press. The wine thus made is remarkably luscious, of great strength, and will keep well for a century. The Swiss, when their wine is a year old, bore a hole two-thirds of the way up the head of the cask, drink it down to the tap, and then refill it with the new vintage, by which the latter is much improved and earlier matured.

Up to the middle of the 17th century the Valteline was a political dependency of the Swiss canton of the Grisons. At that time the German wine trade was by no means very brisk, and both Switzerland and Germany were only too glad of a bottle from that rugged sub-Alpine of the Adda. The export of wine which then commenced continues to the present day, and at Vienna as at Coire, and at Munich as at Bonn, you may have at any hotel your Veltlin or Valteline, at a charge of 3 fr. to 4 fr., which you would probably prefer to many of the thin and acrid Rhenish 'heimers' at three or four times the price.



SECTION X.

- “The roses die, the summer fades,
But every ghost of boyhood’s dream
By Nature’s magic power is laid
To sleep beneath this blood-red stream.
“It fill’d the purple grapes that lay
And drank the splendours of the sun,
Where the long summer’s cloudless day
Is mirror’d in the broad Garonne;
“It pictures still the bacchant shapes
That saw their hoarded sunlight shed,—
The maidens dancing on the grapes,
Their milk-white ankles splash’d with red.”—*O. W. Holmes.*



The Wines of Italy, Sardinia, and Sicily.

O beneficial to this life has the vine been esteemed in all ages, that ardent votaries have never been wanting who believe that the happiness of the one consists in the enjoyment of the other.

“In vite hominis vitam esse diceret.”—*Ovid.*

Yet they do not sufficiently reflect, perhaps, that if wine be ‘the cradle of life,’ it may, by excess, become ‘the grave of reason;’ for if men will constantly sail in ‘the red sea of the Tuscan grape,’ their minds are often drowned, even whilst fondly imagining themselves above the pale of mortality. Although too devoted an allegiance to the vine is thus pernicious, and from it often come more faults than grapes, yet what cherishes the heart of man so much as wine? What more delightfully refreshes the spirits and the mind, exhausted by toil and care, than that natural nectar—that divine medicine which abates our griefs, mitigates our sorrows, and inspires the countenance with happy and smiling cheerfulness?

“Tunc dolor et curæ, rugaque frontis abest.”—*Ibid.*

With what, then, should we begin in preference to the vine

the superiority in which from the most ancient of days has been so especially ceded to Italy, that "in this one blessing," thought Pliny, "she may be pronounced to have surpassed all other nations of the earth, with the sole exception of those that bear a special fragrance; and even then, when the vine is in flower, there is not a perfume known which can surpass it."—(b. xiv. c. 2.) In every clime and in every age its possession has been coveted, and vine-culture has always borne a distinguished feature in the labours of the aspiring husbandman. Among European countries Italy seems to have been the first to receive the grape-plant from Greece, since mention is made of it in the time of Romulus, 717 B.C. It was full a century later, about the year 600, that the early founders of Marseilles—the Phoci—introduced the vine into southern France, although it is highly probable that its proper culture was not understood or pursued until a much later period.

In modern Italy the vinous products are numerous, and of varied excellence; yet, notwithstanding the sterling advantages of a benignant clime and congenial soil, it has not succeeded in maintaining the signal distinction which its early fame might have induced us to expect; and it but too often happens, that where Nature is most bountiful, man becomes remiss and unmindful of her gifts, and ceases to improve the benefits bestowed upon him according to his means and ability. In more northern regions the utmost precaution and skill are employed to protect the vine from the injury of a low temperature and excess of humidity; but in Italy, where it springs up almost spontaneously, and an early summer secures the full maturity of its fruit, but little labour and attention are necessary to produce an abundant crop. Hence the vines that attach themselves to the fences or trees that bound his fields, commonly supply the needy vintager with a beverage sufficient to satisfy his homely wants. Mr. Forsyth, in his able and interesting *Excursion in Italy*, when describing the beauty of the autumnal scenery remarks, "The vintage was now in full glow. Men, women, children, asses, all were variously engaged in the work. I remarked in the scene a prodigality and negligence which I never saw in France. The

grapes dropped unheeded from the panniers, and hundreds were left unclipped on the vine." Yet the peasant-cultivators generally are not an idle or unthrifty race; with them the fair reward of labour has long been wanting, and the stimulus and interest of external commerce have hardly yet sufficed to impel an active desire for improvement, whilst the vexatious and impolitic restrictions of petty principalities, by which the internal traffic has for generations been curtailed and trammelled, compel the people to remain content with their own imperfect, slovenly, and indolent system.

If appearance alone were consulted, the bald and stunted vines of Burgundy or Champagne must yield to the more exuberant growths of Italy, where, for the most part, they are allowed to send forth their foliage full and unbroken; and their branches, entwining round each other, and occasionally forming festoons from tree to tree, contribute to variegate and adorn the landscape.

"'Tis harvest time. The vines in light festoons
From tree to tree, the trees in avenues,
And every avenue a covered walk,
Hung black with clusters. 'Tis enough to make
The sad man merry, the benevolent one
Melt into tears, so general is the joy."—ROGERS' *Italy*.

In this happy season scores of peasants in their parti-coloured attire may be seen plucking the grapes with laughter and jest, and heaping them into deep baskets, till the purple clusters loll over the edge wet with the bursting juice. Some are mounted on ladders to reach the highest, some on foot below gathering the lowest, and the luscious-laden panniers are borne off on the head to a great basket wain, into which they are carelessly tumbled together. While thus actively occupied they frequently snatch a few vine-leaves to screen their heads from a too ardent sun, rendering the scene both lively and picturesque. When the grapes are all gathered, they are heaped into capacious stone vats. The merry villagers, crowned with vine-leaves and bare-legged to their thighs, now leap in, and with joke and song tread down the grapes, whose juice flows out into a huge butt below: as they crush them down, new heaps are added, and it is no

small task to keep them under. But animation is mutually imparted ; the juice spurts over them in crimson blotches,—the perspiration streams from their foreheads,—they pant with exertion and excitement, and, as they brush aside their dank dark locks, stain their bronzed features with streaks of purple. When tired out by this fatiguing work, others take the vacant places, and so the dance goes on until the richest juice is expressed and conveyed to the reservoir.

The ordinary management of the Italian vineyards is in many respects very faulty : it often occurs that the vines are planted in corn land, and corn is grown where the vines ought to be. The peasant-farmer, having but little ground and still less capital, does not look beyond the quickest return and that which comes most immediately within his slender means, for small is his expenditure in providing proper vats, casks, and other cellar implements, the want of which is much felt in Italy. Another reason why so much wine in Italy was worse than indifferent was, that the grapes ripened in such abundance that the people thought it would not pay, even were it possible to make the wine of commercial value ; and all a disconcerted proprietor could do was to secure a choice barrel for himself,—exquisite perhaps for home consumption, but not suitably prepared to bear the friction of land and sea journeys. Yet wine, even to the meanest peasant, was one of the necessities of life, and a *vin ordinaire* was provided to suit the poor consumer's needs. On such a beverage, which cost him but 5 or 6 cents a quart, he managed to get drunk at the village fair ; whilst the gentleman proprietor pledged you in a more generous liquor, for the birth-place of which he would triumphantly point to the hillside before his own window. "Poverty," says the accomplished Karl de Bonstellen, in one of his letters from Lugano, "both in money and in brains, reigns in these Italian valleys, and beggary and idleness are encouraged daily by the largess of convents. Agriculture remains in its primitive stages ; the vines, which crept or flung themselves in tangled masses about the southern slopes, owed their purple clusters to the sunshine and the dews of heaven, rather than to the care of the vine-dressers." In spite, however, of every error

in culture, the growth of grapes in ordinary seasons is immense, vast quantities being raised subsidiary to other purposes than wine ; whilst the great superiority of climate might still ensure a high rank to Italian produce,—

“Were they content to prune the lavish vine
Of straggling branches, and improve the wine.”—*Dryden*.

Although the varieties of the grape are numerous, well known, and many of them of the first excellence, no pains are taken to separate the different species, either in the planting or the vintage ; they are gathered indiscriminately, and often before they are ripe ; no nicety or cleanliness is shown in conducting the fermentation, or in tuning or storing the liquor ;—in short, the juice is often irreparably spoiled before it has left the vat. But on such points the ignorance, the obstinacy, and the slovenly indolence of the natives are almost incredible ; and, unhappily, the quality of the wine is almost always in the inverse ratio of profuse expansion. Nevertheless, in particular districts of Italy good wine is by no means rare in the present day, and as in many instances both care and industry are exercised in its fabrication and management, the ancient fame of its vinous produce may yet emerge from the darkness that for ages has enshrouded the land ; for shall it be forgotten whence came the nectar of which Anacreon used to sing ? or where grew the grapes for the vintages so lovingly painted by Virgil ? If Italy could produce superlative wines in the times of Augustus, why not now, with an undiminished sun and unimpaired soil, and every modern appliance to boot ? Verily, to this desirable end freedom alone is wanting—freedom of thought and freedom of action,—for the dawn of a brighter future is already responding to the aspirations of an ardent and intellectual people. The oppression of a foreign yoke and of domestic exaction are chargeable with much of the existing evil ; the Italians are sensibly alive to their recent abject condition, no less than to the advantages of industrial commerce, and would soon apply themselves to amend a faulty system were they permitted to reap a fitting reward. In those evil times of political and social depression, the views and interests of its people were not allowed

to extend beyond the demand for home consumption : yet of all the countries of Europe, Italy ought to be foremost in viticultural science. Did the vintage there receive the same skilful attention as was secured to it in France, sound and high-class wines would doubtless be obtained, for the climate is matchless and the soil congenial. With reference to these social needs, M. Francis de Blasus, œnologist, and some time secretary of Commerce,—consequently a highly competent authority,—writes,—

“I do not hesitate to proclaim, that Italy does not possess another production that would deserve the solicitude and interest, on the part of the Government as well as private individuals, to an equal extent as that of her wines. Being endowed with a soil the best adapted for viticulture, a sun less torrid than that of Spain or Portugal, a climate which may be said to have been created for the purpose of perfectly maturing the grape, a sea affording the easiest means of transport into all parts of the world,—what other country would be capable of deriving greater benefits from an intelligent cultivation of vines and an improved process of wine making? The Italians seem to be convinced of this at last, because they have commenced bestowing assiduous attention to this matter by giving popular lectures on the subject of viticulture, holding timely œnological meetings, by improvements in process, in utensils and machinery, and by instituting exhibitions with prizes, medals, and other distinctions, which must effect great results in a few years. . . . When we have learned to make excellent wines, and brought them to the knowledge of the world, we shall ensure a lucrative business by exporting them, while giving, at the same time, a wholesome beverage to our own country, to be enjoyed by the people at moderate prices.”

The impulse given to viticulture by these timely measures has been manifest in more recent years, and the progressive extension of this branch of agricultural industry, aided by the practical improvements naturally attendant on watchful and extended experience, promise augmented and beneficial results in a near future.

Italy, it is estimated, already produces thirty million hectolitres of wine, each containing 100 quarts, an annual production susceptible of considerable expansion were the requisite facilities of transit and commerce more readily ensured. The exports of the past ten years have been steadily on the increase,

the largest portion finding their way to our Indian colonies, the states of North and South America, Tunis, Tripoli, Egypt, and Russia. The vintages most favoured abroad are the Falernian and Capri, of Naples; the Barbera, Grignolino, Nebbiola, and sparkling Asti and Malvasia, of Piedmont; Ricasoli's Chianti, of Brolio; and the duc d'Aumale's favoured products of Zucco and Partinico, in Sicily. As regards the Falernian—a wine of which men have hardly heard since the days of Horace,—it is deserving of mention, that it now ranks as the best of all the national wines in the first hotels throughout the kingdom, and is invariably charged 1 fr. or 1½ fr. higher than the finest brands of Piedmont or Tuscany.

From the force of general censure of former Italian apathy and misrule, Tuscany deserves to be excepted, where the routine of culture is much better conducted than in any neighbouring state. This lovely province is one continuous vineyard and olive ground. What would in England be fields and common hedges, are here a mass of orchards, producing wine and oil in rich abundance. The luxuriant vines of her soil are nearly all raised on the high training system, and considerable care is bestowed on the manufacture. The hill wines only are good, the growth of the plains being generally regarded as poor. The Aleatico, a red muscadine, is produced in the highest perfection at Montepulciano, at Monte Catini, and at Ponte-a-Marino, in the Lucchese territory. It is of a brilliant purple colour, with a luscious aromatic flavour, yet in nowise cloying or distasteful, as its sweetness is tempered with an agreeable sharpness and astringency. The rocky hills of Chianti, near Sienna, furnish another celebrated red wine, which is made from a different grape, equally sweet but rather less aromatic, the produce of a creeping kind of vine; and at Artimino an excellent Claret is grown. The full-bodied wine of Carmignano could boast a gay name in olden times, and still maintains a deserved rank in popular esteem.

Tuscany has been ever considered the country of the vine in Italy, and so much has the notion been cherished by its people, that '*Corpo di Bacco!*' is the common expletive of the lower

classes. Redi, too, a celebrated Italian poet, and court physician to the Grand-dukes of Tuscany in the seventeenth century, in his exquisite dithyrambic *Bacco in Toscana*, depicts with graphic effect the fervent love of his countrymen for the product of the vine. This extravaganza is a free and lively outburst of animal joyousness, improvised, as it were, to an hilarious dancing measure in a true Bacchanalian spirit. As poetry inevitably suffers by transmutation into any foreign tongue, it would be somewhat difficult to convey in an English dress a just conception of the sparkling vivacity these verses display,—a difficulty enhanced by the national objects and associations interwoven with the subject, no less than by the little cognizance in this country of the true character of Tuscan wines. As the poem, however, is regarded as one of the smartest and most popular of Italian literary gems, the following detached passages may serve to awaken interest for a production awarded so large a share of local celebrity; nor, peradventure, will it lose favour in the estimation of the intelligent reader, should he be able to discern in these rollicking stanzas the model suggestive of the playful freedom displayed in the *Don Juan* of lord Byron, or in the *Hyperion* of Longfellow,—but constitute instead the best apology for this digression.

The poet, it may be premised, feigns that Bacchus, accompanied by Ariadne, in taking his divine circuits around the globe, comes and seats himself in judicial state on the lawn before the grand-ducal mansion in the vicinity of Florence. He demands to know how the Tuscan wines go on. They are served up to him: he tastes, he criticises, and pronounces between the several varieties presented for his judgment. He drinks deeper, becomes elevated, and the whole assembly abandon themselves to the joy and excitement of the passing moment. “But it was when Bacchus rose up hand in hand with Ariadne, that the company had the greatest reason to admire their movements as they tenderly saluted and embraced each other. Seeing how beautiful Bacchus was, and the surpassing loveliness of his blushing consort, the spectators, not in blind simulation, but in earnest, were all delighted as they beheld them, applauding heartily as

he commenced the strains of his tuneful lay."—XENOPHON.
The Banquet.

BACCO IN TOSCANA.

THE conqueror of the East, the GOD OF WINE,
 Taking his rounds divine,
 Pitch'd his blithe sojourn on the Tuscan hills :
 And where the imperial seat
 First feels the morning heat,
 Lo ! on the lawn, in May-time white and red,
 He sat with Ariadne on a day.
 And as he sang, and as he quaff'd away,
 He kiss'd his charmer first, and thus he said :—
 " Dearest ! if one's vital tide
 Ran not with the grape's beside,
 What would life be, (without Cupid ?)
 Much too short, and far too stupid.
 You see the reflex from the sky
 That tips the goblet on mine eye ;
 Vines are nets that catch such food,
 And turn them into pulsive blood.

" Come, then ! in the beverage bold
 Let's renew us, and grow muscular ;
 And for those who're getting old,
 Glasses get of size tubular ;—
 And in dancing and in feasting,
 Quips and cranks, and worlds of jesting,
 Let us with a laughing eye,
 See the old boy TIME go by,
 Who with his eternal sums
 Whirls his brains, and sprains his thumbs.

" And now, while my lungs are swimming at will,
 All in a bath so noble and sweet,
 A god though I be,
 I have, too, my deity,
 And to thee, Ariadne, I consecrate
 The tunnel and flask,
 And the funnel and cask !
 Quaff this jewel of a wine :
 It comes of a delicious vine,
 That makes one live twice over.
 Drink it, Ariadne mine !
 And sweet as surely you are,
 'Twill make you more sweet, more perfect and fair."

" Oh, boys ! this Tuscan land divine
 Hath such a natural gift of wine,
 We'll fall, we'll fall
 On the barrels and all ;
 We'll fall on the must, we'll fall on the presses,
 We'll make the boards groan with our vivid caresses.
 No measure, I say ; no order,—but riot ;
 No waiting nor cheating ; we'll drink like a Sciot.
 Drink ! drink ! drink again when you've done ;
 Pledge it merrily till joy you have won.
 Frisk it, and challenge it, swallow it down ;
 He that's afraid is a thief and a clown.
 If Signor Bellini, besides his wild apes,
 Would anatomize vines and anatomize grapes,
 He'd see that the heart which engenders good wine,
 Is formed to do good, and very benign.
 And thou, made immortal, Ariadne, my own !
 Shalt sit where for Jove the gods make a crown for his throne.
 Then the rote shall go round, and the cymbals kiss,
 Whilst I praise Ariadne, my beauty, my bliss !

" True son of the earth is Chianti wine,
 Born on the ground of a gipsy vine ;
 Born on the ground for sturdy souls,
 And not the lank race of your garden poles.

 Like a bold king
 In his conquering,
 Chianti wine with his red flag goes
 Down to my heart, and down to my toes ;
 He makes no noise, and beats no drums,
 Yet pain and trouble fly as he comes.
 Still, with a good bottle of Carmignan,
 He, of the twain, is the merrier man ;
 He brings from heav'n such a fill of joy,
 I envy not Jove his ambrosia, my boy.
 Drink then, Ariadne, for the grapery
 Was the warmest and richest in Tuscany.
 Drink, and whatever the Naiads say,
 Still let thy answer to them be ' Nay : '
 For folly it were, and even a sin,
 To drink it diluted with water in.

" Cups of chocolate, or fragrant tea,
 Are not compounds made for me ;
 Nor that bitter and dirty stuff, ye
 Prate of so much, and term it coffee:

So, for a liquor so dark and unseemly,
 With the Grand Turk I differ extremely.
 And the dolt who drinks water, I frankly observe,
 Gets nothing from me : he may swill and may starve.
 Whether from well, or flowing from fountain,
 Or whether it comes foaming white from the mountain,
 I cannot admire it,
 Nor ever desire it.

Away with all water wherever I come,
 I forbid it my people, the old and the young ;
 Of lemonade water,—of jessamine water
 Our tavern knows nothing ;—water's a hum !
 All your hydromels and flips
 Come not near these cautious lips.

“ There is a squalid thing call'd beer :
 The man whose lips that brew comes near
 Swiftly dies,—or falling foolish,
 Grows at forty old and owlsh.
 She that in the ground would hide her,
 Let her take to English cider :
 He who'd have his death come quicker,
 Any other Northern liquor.

“ But a truce to vain pretences !
 Or I shall surely lose my senses.
 Let me purify my mouth
 In a cup of the rosy South ;
 In a golden pitcher let me
 Deeply plunge and comfort get me,
 And drink of the wine
 Of the vine
 So benign,
 That sparkles warm in Sansovine.

“ Meanwhile let's renew our drinking ;—
 But with *what* fresh wine and glorious
 Shall our beaded brims be winking,
 For an echoing toast victorious ?
 You know Lamporecchio, the castle crown'd ?
 There's a topaz made there,—pray let it go round
 Serve, serve me a dozen,
 But let it be frozen,—
 Let it be frozen and garnish'd with ice,
 And see that the same be as virginly nice
 As the coldest that whistles from wintry skies :

Coolers and cellarets, crystal with snows,
Should always hold bottles in ready repose.

Bring me heaps
Of all that sleeps

On every village hill and valley,
For weak is the brain, and I verily scout it,
That thinks in hot weather to drink wine without it.
Then bring me ice daily, and bring it me doubly,
Out of the grotto of Monte di Boboli :

With adze and pickaxes,
Hammers and rammers,
Thump it and hit it me,
Crack it and crash it me,
Hew it and split it me,
Pound it and smash it me,

Till the whole—(for I'm dead dry, I think!)
Turns cold enough to freshen my drink.

"When drinking free I can boldly defy
The hail and snow of a freezing sky.

I never go poking
Or croaking, when cloaking,
And wrapping myself from head to foot,—
As some people do,—hat and wig to boot.

"Wine, wine! is your only drink!

Grief never dares to look at the brink.
Fill, then, fill! let us have our will!
But with what—with *what*, boys, shall we fill?
Fill me the manna of Montepulciano;—
Fill me a magnum, and hand it hither.—Gods!
It glides to my heart by the sweetest of roads.
Oh! how it kisses me,—tickles me,—lovingly bites me!
And now my eyes loosen all sweetly in tears!
Then hearken, all earth! and listen, ye drinkers!
All who reverence Bacchus, and are noble thinkers!
Give ear, and have faith in this edict divine,
'*Montepulciano's the King of all Wine!*'

"At these inspiring sounds
The Nymphs in giddy rounds,
Shaking their ivy diadems and grapes,
Echo the triumph in fantastic shapes.
The Satyrs would fain have join'd them; but, alas!
They couldn't; for they lay about the grass
As drunk as apes."

Bacchus is now fairly intoxicated, and then ensues a passage which, although much admired in Italy, it is scarcely possible to do justice to in English. The head of the deity begins to turn : he thinks there is an earthquake, and calls out for a boat. His thickened speech becomes divided between Ariadne and the fancied boatmen. Cucurruçù (*sic in orig.*) is the burthen of a popular song, in which is imitated the voice and actions of a cock.

“ Holloa ! what phenomenon is this,
That makes my head turn round ?
I’ faith, I think it is
A turning of the ground !

Ho, ho, earth ! if that’s your mirth,
It may not, I think, be bad for me
To leave *terra firma*, and take to the sea.

Holloa, there ! A boat ! a boat !
As large as can float, stock’d plenteously ;
Wine is the ballast, boys, for the salt sea.
I’ll embark—I will, for freedom and sport,
And drink as I go till I settle in port ;

Rock, rock,—wine is my stock,
Wine is my stock, and will bring us to port ;
We’ll all go sailing and rowing to port.

“ Oh ! what a sweet thing
’Tis for you and for me,
On an evening in spring
To sail on the salt sea !

The gentle fresh airs spread blithsome their wings,
And flit o’er the blue surface in gay revellings ;
To the tune of the waters, with tremulous glee,
They strike up a dance for people at sea.

“ Row, brothers, row !
We’ll sail and we’ll go ;
We’ll sail and we’ll go till we settle in por—
Ariadne ! in por—in port.

Pull away, pull away,
Without drag or delay ;
No gallants grow tired, but think it a sport
To feather their oars till they settle in port—

In por—Ariadne, in port !
I’ll give you a toast,
And then, you know, you—
Arianeeny ! my beauty—my queeny—

Shall sing me a little, and play to me, too,
On the mandòla the coocurucoo !

The coocurucoo !

On the mandòla the coocurucoo !

“A long pu—a strong pu—a pull altogether !

Boaters never get tired, but think it a sport

To feather their oars till they settle in port—

In por—Ariadne ! in port.

I'll give thee a toas—

Yes ! I *will* give a toast ; and then, you know, you

Shall give me one too.

Arianeeny ! my quainty—my queeny !

Sing me, you ro—

Sing me, you rogue, and play to me, do,

On the vio—viòla the coocurucoo !

The coocurucoo !

On the viðla the coocurucoo !”

In this favoured province all classes, without excess, enjoy their wine freely, fancying it makes good blood. At a Tuscan villa the owner will with pride extol the vinous produce of his estate ; and in Florence the nobles sell their wine by retail from their palace cellars. The phrase “flask of wine” is essentially Tuscan,—the wine being supplied to the consumer in bottles holding about three quarts, of the shape of the well-known oil vessels. When filled, a little oil is put into the neck, which effectually keeps the wine from the air : when it is to be poured out, a bit of tow is first inserted, which will absorb the oil from the surface of the wine. The vintages of Tuscany are mostly red. Formerly several white sorts were made, of which the Verdea, so called from its having a bright green tinge, was in high repute. Frederick II. of Prussia preferred it to all other European wines ; and in the time of our James I., to have drunk Verdea is mentioned as among the boasts of a travelled gentleman. The best came from Arcetri, in the vicinity of Florence, where the wines of Carmignano, of Poncino, Val di Marina, Artimino, and others of the same class, are produced, many of which are of superior quality.

In the Campagna, and in Lombardy, trellis-work and poles are both used for the support of the vines, which on the hills are dressed in terraces, and wheat sown between. From Verona to

Vicenza, it is usual to plant the trees lozenge or quincunx fashion for training purposes ; and latticed arches are adopted for most villa gardens, from which the grapes hang suspended in rich profusion. In the north, from Bassano to Trent, the valleys abound in vineyards, but the wine is too rich and luscious to be drunk by any but the inhabitants. In spots among the Apennines the vines are carefully dressed terrace-wise, and, were they sufficiently pruned, and the fruit taken at due maturity, a vast deal of excellent wine might be produced. In Calabria the system of high training prevails, yet so far from this mode being prejudicial to the quality of the fruit, they are obliged to shade the vines from the sun, lest in that volcanic region the grape should become too ripe, shrivel into a raisin, and be only fit for making wine of the thickest and sweetest kind. The wines of the *ci-devant* Papal States are for the most part low in quality. The only sorts deserving mention are those of Orvieto, and the light muscatel wines of Albano and Montefiascone. These are considered excellent by the natives ; but as they do not bear distant carriage, they are seldom met with far from home. "The town of Montefiascone," we are told, "lies upon a hill formed like a flagon, from whence it is so called. There doth grow the best muscadine in all Italy ; by which wine a certain German abbot, Johann Fugger by name, when on his way to Rome, drank himself to death, and lies there buried, with this epitaph written by his servant, the purveyor :—

EST, EST, EST !

ET

PROPTER NIMIUM EST !

HERUS MEUS DOMINUS ABBAS

MORTUUS EST.

He was sent on before by his master for this end,—to taste the wine in divers places ; and where he found this good muscadine to chalk on the door the word *Est*, as a token for his master to know that he would there find good wine ; and so, as he espied the same written on the doors, there he alighted and renewed his drinking, whereby he lost his life."—*Harleian Miscellany*.

PIEDMONT and SAVOY produce wines in much abundance, which are generally wholesome, and often good ; those of St.

Albero and Montmelian, in Savoy, are among the best in the country. The hill sides and favourable mountain slopes are mostly covered with vineyards, and hardly a province at the foot of the Alps, or along the widely spread hill of Montferrat, is without some peculiar wine of its own. The growths best known are those of Biella and Asti, the latter being both still and sparkling, and reputed in the country for superior quality. The wine of Nice, though apparently thin, is strong and heady, and disagrees at first with strangers. A good *vin de liqueur* is made near Chamberry from a Cyprus species of vine, and an effervescing sort from the malvasia grape is grown at Lasseraz. The red of Montferrat, near Marengo, although deep-coloured and intoxicating, retains a firm hold on local preference. Besides the range of low hills of the Asti and Montferrat region, all the Alpine valleys are recovering their ancient activity. The wine traffic, which the Florentine nobles monopolized and carried on by retail at their palace doors, is now assuming the extended proportions of a national commerce, and there is to be had in most north Italian inns wines as full-bodied as that Grignolino, with which Monsignor Franzoni, archbishop of Turin, solaced the weariness of his exile at Lyons, and which he preferred to the Nuits or Chambertin of the choicest Burgundian cellars freely placed before him.

It is a pleasing feature to note, that in all countries where the grape abounds the vintage-time is felt to be one of joy and pleasurable excitement; a period when the impending harvest awakens the jubilant alacrity of the whole community, whose busy hum of labour and cheerful industry have often attracted the notice and admiration of the passing tourist.

"The vintage of Savoy," remarks the observant author of *Italics*, in one of the many vivacious sketches emanating from her facile pen, "is one of the loveliest sights in all the world. The land holds then its great feast of tabernacles, all festooned with purple wreaths. Everywhere the men are gathering the sweet grapes, and dropping the bunches to the women and children, who catch them in their hands, and stow them away in the white wooden pails. At the corner of each field stands the heavy old cart with its grey oxen chewing the cud, and now and then stamping impatiently at too intrusive flies, which the pretty nets on their

foreheads have not sufficed to banish ; while some tiny child of five or six sits by them, and plays at keeping the beautiful beasts, or climbs up and helps itself to some of the grapes in the huge tubs on the waggon. And round and beyond us on every side are other fields of corn and vines, and lanes of walnut and acacia, and further yet the grand mountains and the lovely lake—now emerald green, now turquoise blue—gleaming through umbrageous trees and festooned garlands, till far away Mont Cenis, with his perennial crown of snow, grows rosy in the setting sun.”—*Frances Cobbe*.

Prior to the appearance of the *oïdium* the wines of Piedmont formed the ordinary beverage of the people. The price was low, and within their means ; but the great havoc occasioned in some districts by the distemper so enhanced the cost, that it was put at once beyond the reach of the labouring classes, and wine became more or less an article of luxury. The immediate effect was, that the use of beer, which was disliked by the peasantry, and previously confined within narrow limits, received a sudden impulse, and the consumption, in the towns especially, increased largely. The supply for the city of Turin alone now reaches a million of gallons annually, the quality resembling, in some degree, that of Germany, whence the hops used in its fabrication are imported. Such a compulsory preference, however, is not likely to be of long endurance, for beer may be said to represent the abstract, and wine the concrete of poetic thought, in gravity as well as in wit and humour, and typifies the nascent spirit of the juice of the grape. This may serve to explain and adorn Teutonic gravity, but it will never assimilate with the sprightly nature of Italian vivacity.

Some of the best wines of Italy are found in the vicinity of NAPLES, especially the sweet kinds that grow on the volcanic soils of Vesuvius, the principal among them being the celebrated *Lachryma Christi*, which is certainly entitled to rank with the superlative produce of any country. It is a red, luscious wine, better known from its name than its use, as it is made only in small quantities, and chiefly reserved for the royal cellars. It is exceedingly rich, with an exquisite flavour, and is thought by some to be the Falernian wine of Horace ; yet, from the poet's vivid description of a passing luxury, this can hardly be trusted,

The islands in the bay of Naples all furnish more or less wine, that of Capri being very fair in quality. At Reggio two kinds are made from the same grape,—a muscadine and a dry wine. At Carigliano a sweet kind with the flavour of fennel is grown. The banks of lake Averno produce both red and white varieties, some of which are nearly as good as those obtained from Mount Vesuvius.

In SARDINIA the vine is so productive, that the fruit is frequently left upon the branches for lack of vessels to hold the juice ; yet but little effort is made to improve this opulent bounty, and the indolent apathy of the people seems ineradicable. The climate is propitious, the soil congenial and fertile ; the vine and the olive, the orange and fig flourish, but the system of agriculture is wretched, and with every natural advantage in their favour, the interests of industry and commerce are strangely neglected. A few good wines, however, are produced ; and among them an amber-coloured sort called Nasco, and Giro, a red variety, are the most remarkable. There are also several sweet and ordinary wines, some of which are exported to Holland and Russia.

SICILY produces wine in much abundance, but the remarks on the bad husbandry and vintage of Italy apply here in full force. The same advantages for the growth, and the same imperfections of treatment, the same errors in fermentation, and the same ignorance, obstinacy, and inattention to cleanliness, attend the whole system. Nevertheless, many vintages maintain their ancient repute, and, contrary to what prevails in Italy, the white wines here are the more numerous, and by far the best. It was the continental blockade of the first Napoleon, and the circumstance that Portugal, Spain, and Sicily were the only wine-growing countries then open to English enterprise, that in the early part of the present century created so large a demand for Port, Sherry, and Sicilian Marsala in the United Kingdom ; and, strange to say, the favour the latter vintage found with English palates so enhanced its value in the estimation of its own people, that while hardly any other native wine ever fetches more than three or four francs a bottle, Marsala is sold at their

wine-shops at six francs, and served out at the table of the rich as a preferable luxury.

Sicily for two thousand years past has been the scene of many volcanic eruptions and subterranean phenomena. In 1693 the island was desolated by a violent earthquake yet more calamitous than any known in preceding ages, which destroyed many flourishing towns and villages, attended with an immense loss of human life. Among others, the town of Pasceni entirely disappeared. It was a pretty place, and once famous for its wine and silk, which were exported in considerable quantities; it contained about 200 families, and those among the richest of any minor town in all Sicily. Now there is not one single house left standing, nor was one single person saved. A new lake, with water of a blackish colour and a bituminous taste, occupies the spacious valley on the east side of the town, which heretofore was covered with the best of vines. It was computed that the number of the population who perished in this affrightful visitation was not less than 120,000 souls, besides a vast number mangled by the fall of churches and buildings amounting to 20,000 more, whereof many afterwards died. The property sacrificed, according to an ecclesiastical chronicler, exceeded six million ducats in value.

Within recent years the free trade carried on between England and Sicily has brought us more acquainted with the growths of the hills at the foot of Mount Etna, which may be regarded as one vast vineyard, producing a great variety of wines, according to the different soils and aspects; and no sufficient reason has as yet been assigned why nature should not here be expected to complete its own handiwork, and in the perfection of the vintage revive the reputation it so well sustained in former ages. The grape, as previously remarked, is always richest and most fertile when raised in a dry, stony soil, with much heat and but little moisture, for copious or frequent rain serves to fill the berry with a juice too aqueous for the secretion of more than a scanty portion of sugar, and wine derived from such a source is mostly weak and insipid. But on the sunny mountain side, amid volcanic boulders and accumulated *débris*, the vine strikes its

attenuated fibre through the loose surface soil to the depth of several feet in search of aliment from the crevices and fissures of the rocks, while it expands its branches and leaves to be alternately warmed in the noon-day heat and refreshed by the dews of night; and proportionately with the continuance and intensity of the sun's rays will be the ripeness and flavour of the fruit.

In the time of Homer the vine grew wild in Sicily, and most probably on the adjacent continent; but for a thousand years afterwards it was not improved by the labour or skill, nor did it furnish a liquor grateful to the taste, of the uncivilized inhabitants. Italy could boast, according to Pliny, that of the fourscore most generous and celebrated wines then known, more than two-thirds had their origin in her soil. In his time the fertile district of Leontium, about five miles distant from the sea-shore, produced the choicest vintage in the whole island. Favoured by a propitious climate, appropriate sites, and a glowing sky, the volcanic region of Etna and Vesuvius may be regarded as one of much future promise, especially when its many natural adaptations shall be fairly aided by skill, energy, and amendment. At present the first wines of the province of Mascoli grow on Etna, being almost the only good red kind met with on the island. The vineyards of the Benedictine monks in the same neighbourhood produce the wine named *Terre Forte*, considered to be the stoutest in all Sicily. Augusta yields a variety strongly impregnated with the flavour of violets. Over the mouldering remains of Syracuse a red muscadine is raised, equal, if not superior, to any other known. The *Faro*, in much local repute, is grown in the district of Messina, which furnishes a considerable quantity of wine for exportation. Marsala, when not overcharged with impure brandy, is a useful and agreeable liquor, something like Madeira of the second class, possesses considerable body, and keeps well. The cultivation of the vine in Sicily is fast progressing, but the art of making wine so as to enable it to endure a sea voyage without the addition of spirit is still a desideratum. Wines *di lusso*, such as Marsala or Zucco, travel well, but other native produce will not bear exportation. Not long since wine in Palermo was dearer than in any other Italian

city, notwithstanding the *octroi* tax is 50 per cent. lower than in most other places.

The island of ELBA would seem to be especially adapted for the vine. The heat of the sun, a congenial soil, lofty mountains which afford by their elevation all the requisite degrees of temperature, and actual experience corroborate this view. The best wines are the Bianillo and Aleatico, red ; the Muscat, both red and white ; the Riminese, white. A Champagne of superior flavour is made of the *procanico* grape ; also of the muscat before being dried in the sun, which is necessary previous to the manufacture of muscadine wine. The vineyard attains its perfection in the fifth year, when in a good season a hundred vines will yield from twelve to fourteen barrels on the average. The older the vine, the richer is the product ; some are said to be as much as one hundred and fifty years old. The Lipari isles, too, have tolerable ordinary wines, whilst their Malmsey, raised on the extinct volcano Stromboli, is held in wide esteem, and is nearly all exported.

Italy, although regarded as especially "the land of the sun," did not escape the ravages of that European scourge the grape-blight. Commencing its career, in 1851, from the northern portion of Piedmont, it pursued its devastating course through the Lombard, Tuscan, and other wine-producing districts, sparing not, and continued its baneful progress without much abatement through four successive years. The loss to proprietors was severe, and much distress and privation were occasioned the people by their being so long deprived of the harvest that provided them with a wholesome and economical beverage, which tradition and usage had long made for them one of the necessities of life. A curious fact was noticed as attendant on this visitation during the seasons of its greatest virulence, by the spontaneous production in common ground of an immense quantity of mushrooms, which regularly decreased as the intensity of the vine-distemper diminished.





SECTION XI.

“Would you drink a bland and stouter vintage, let your cellar flow with the richest of Hungarian wine,—the wine of Körös.”—*Local adage.*

The Wines of Hungary, Austria, and the Crimea.

HUNGARY, as a wine-growing country, has heretofore scarcely received the consideration its importance deserves. As the innate merits of its products are considerable, the time cannot be far distant when their qualities will be more generally recognised, and with a free import into this country a steady demand may be fairly expected; to which, indeed, the high cost of transit has long constituted a serious obstacle, high mountain ridges and sparsely peopled tracts dividing the most fertile lands from the sea. The wines are sound, durable, abundant, and cheap; rich in flavour, aroma, and delicacy. Stronger than Rhenish, French, or even than some Spanish or Portuguese *unbranded* samples, they are particularly well adapted for our climate, and are further endowed with other commendable properties. In his official report to the British government, Mr. Graham Dunlop* remarks—

“Many of the Hungarian wines are agreeable and wholesome when drunk on the spot, but they are in general made with a view merely to home or neighbouring markets, and with little or no regard to foreign consumption, or to their fitness for undergoing transport. Consequently, although the people thoroughly understand the culture and management of the grape until the vintage, their whole system of wine-making and manipulation is careless, wasteful, and defective, and requires improvement. I hardly think that even the best Hungarian (*unbranded*) wine will ever, among rich people who drink expensive wines, successfully

* British Secretary of Legation at Vienna. See *Parliamentary Report,—Secretaries of Embassies.* 1862.

compete in England with first quality French clarets ; but if the English middle and lower classes do not take to the light acid French growths, they would certainly become large consumers of the dry, strong-bodied, clean Hungarian wines, more especially the white, and these could be supplied to them cheaper than sherries from Cadiz. The stout red wine resembling Burgundy would perfectly suit the English general market. M. de Szèmere, a short time since, made some attempts in foreign countries to introduce the Hungarian wines, for they were known then almost by reputation alone. The wine ordinarily offered abroad for sale under that name was a counterfeit or an imitation, and excessively dear. But when he produced the genuine wine and mentioned its price, people were as much astonished at its excellent flavour as at its comparative cheapness. The stocks of choice wines accumulated in the vast cellars of the principal trading towns are prodigious, not to mention the immense collection in the episcopal, chapteral, and palatial vaults, and in those of the more wealthy of the land-owning aristocracy ; and it is to their rich, strong, dry, clean wines that her people ought to trust for a great future of wine-export commerce, and of these they would have every right to be proud."

The general contour of this country presents a vast surface gradually sloping to the south, and next to Spain and Portugal is more advantageously situated for extensive vine culture than any other portion of north-western Europe. Although nearly coincident in latitude with the central part of France and of the south of Germany, her peculiarities of site are superior to either, more especially with respect to the latter. Protected by the adjacent Carpathian range on the north, open to the south, and so far distant from the sea-coast as to nullify any injurious briny exhalations by absorption over intermediate lands, whatever the plant indispensably requires—an atmosphere neither too moist, nor too arid and dry, with bright and warm harvest weather towards the close of the season—is fully realized in the autumnal months of October and November, which are often here the fairest portion of the year. Nothing can exceed the grandeur and beauty of its mountains, crowned with sheltering woods and vines of exuberant vegetation. Wherever is seen a lofty hill, there will be found a carefully-tended plantation. The superb Badacsony hills encircle the majestic lake of Balaton, covering a space of 125 square miles ; the arid and elevated

region of Mènes or Világos shelters the rich vales of the Bânat, —the holy Canaan of Hungary ; the pyramidal mount of Tokaj, a chaotic and perdurable landmark, dominates the borders of a vast plain. It is like Vesuvius in form, and its existing yet silent crater points irresistibly to the fact that it was once a flame-consuming phenomenon. The tillage of such a locality is both troublesome and expensive, the produce obtainable ever small ; but then in the latent fire of this volcanic spot lives the peerless imperial Tokay. The territory exceeds five miles in length, and covers upwards of 60,000 acres, yielding on an average about 1,250,000 gallons of good ordinary wine, 375,000 gallons of fair or superior, and 50,000 more of superfine wine ; the two latter sorts only forming a medium of external commerce, and finding their way into Germany, Poland, and Russia. With the exception of the loftier acclivities in the north and east, there is scarcely a county throughout the kingdom which does not in some measure participate in the culture of the grape, and it is round the isolated hillocks that rise up at various points of its alluvial basin that vineyards flourish, constituting a series of vine districts and regions more distinctive in the character of their varying produce than in most other countries. Numberless are the gradations and character of the produce, each differing from the other in some material respect : in colour, it varies from green to yellow ; in strength, it is light or generous ; in taste, it is dry or sweet, with more or less of a dainty aroma. Every wine has its name, derived from a town or a county, a mountain or a lake. Next to Tokay, which is white, the most conspicuous liqueur wines are the red of Mènes and Eger ; whilst, for light table-wines, the drier vintages of Erlaure and Ofner, and the white of Szamorodny, Bakator, Somlaure, and the Hock-rivalling Badacsony are second to none. Imperial Tokay, confessedly the true emperor of wines, has almost as mythical a character as the ancient Shiraz. In medieval times it invariably figured at the banquets of kings, and formed the complimentary present between princes, dukes, and emperors. It was the wine which, at the council of Trent, pope Paul III. declared to be worthy even of the pontifical throne ; and of which, to secure a regular and sufficient supply, czars and

czarinas, so recently as a quarter of a century ago, maintained a military guard constantly on Hungarian territory. The element that constitutes its chief peculiarity, its excellence, and medical properties, is phosphoric acid, of which it contains a larger portion than any other vintage in the world; and indeed, according to the certified formulæ of Dr. W. Kletzinsky, an eminent analytical chemist of Vienna, this ingredient is largely present in all Hungarian wines, "experience," responds the editor of the *Lancet*, "every day demonstrating the value of phosphorus in the treatment of nervous complaints; and the beneficial influence it exerts in cases of phthisis is mainly due to the nutrition imparted to the nervous system." The finest Tokay is commonly thought to be the product of one small patch of land belonging to the emperor and a few native princes, and consequently that it is hardly possible to meet with a genuine bottle in any other quarter. This is so far otherwise, that the attainment need not be a matter of complex difficulty, if the requisite trouble were taken to secure it. It derives its name from the town of Tokaj, situate at the confluence of the Theyss and the Bodrog. All that is produced on the southern flank of the neighbouring volcanic mountains is called Tokay. In its cultivation the vine is allowed to reach the height of three or four feet, and is supported by stakes, as in France; the land, which is chiefly volcanic, is dug over three times, and the plants stand half a yard apart.

Tokay in Hungary is held to be the king of white wines, as Mènes is monarch of the red. With us the latter is still less known than his royal brother; and it may well be doubted whether a single genuine undiluted bottle has ever crossed the frontiers. There are three kinds of Tokay wine known to foreign commerce, one-sixth of the ordinary exports being comprised of the two higher grades, and a thousand barrels or so of the secondary quality. These wines may be reckoned among the most durable of their kind. When old, the first class become "the *beau-idéal* of liqueurs, clear as oil, thick as honey, as pungent as ether, and a grand restorative for the aged and debilitated." The highest quality has so peculiar a flavour of the aromatic kind, and is so luscious, that the taste is not easily forgotten.

Where most in demand the oldest only is drunk; at Cracow, the chief mercantile deposit, some vintages are said to have been kept a whole century. The genuine is not usually supplied in the wood, but is sold mostly in bottles. The colour of high-class Tokay never bears a reddish hue, which is characteristic of an inferior quality; and the pre-eminence freely accorded to it has been questioned as belonging more to traditionary notions and fancy than to any superlative vinous properties. The muscadine of Syracuse, or the Lagrima of Malaga, is by some thought to be equal to it in richness and aroma; but the unique flavour and bouquet of genuine Tokay, resembling somewhat the odour of new-baked bread, will readily distinguish between them, although its peculiarity may not be apparent to persons accustomed to the use of drier wines. Verily, there would seem to be little probability of its speedily losing the proud distinction it has so long retained, if we may judge from the fact that a small cask of 200 bottles, vintage of 1811, was purchased by the emperor Louis Napoleon in 1860 at the rate of two guineas the bottle. We are further told that on another occasion, when an Austrian monarch a few years since was desirous of presenting some first-class Tokay in return for a choice stud of horses sent him by the king of Holland, the stock in the imperial cellars was not thought old or matured enough to meet the exigency of royal presentation; and for this august purpose 2000 bottles were purchased at Cracow, at the extravagant price of seven ducats a bottle.*

The vintage in Hungary is later than anywhere else in Europe, as it is generally deferred till the two or three first weeks of November—at the very last moment, indeed, just before the winter frost sets in, and at the risk of losing all; for this primitive people are such sticklers for quality, that they would rather save none than not have the best,—their axiom being, that if the sun of summer ripens the grapes, it is the cold of autumn that perfects the wine. “On the banks of the Neusiedler lake, and in the vicinity of Ruszt,” Karl Müller avers “that it not infrequently occurs that the grapes are gathered in December, when every leaf has long before quitted the vine, and heated stones are pro-

* The Austrian ducat is equivalent to 9s. 6d. sterling.

vided for the grape-pickers, to enable them to snatch a transient warmth for their benumbed fingers." The central months, however, are very hot at Tokaj, much more so than at Beaune, in Burgundy. By the middle of August the grapes are quite ripe, and so forward that in France they would at once be gathered ; but imperial Tokay wine does not, as there, come from the must. It could not be the marvel it is, unless the grapes that produce it had been dried—not spread out on straw, but on the vine itself,—not with the stem twisted, as has been supposed, but retaining the full flow of sap, without getting stained, blighted, or mouldy by the alternate white frosts of night and the bright autumnal sunbeams. If the season prove humid, the crop is lost ; but in Hungary the fall of the year is nearly always dry.

On the commencement of harvest operations the vintager provides two wide-mouthed vases ; one for the bright, clear bunches, the other for the dry grapes, which he takes care to choose pink, full, and sound. The former are put into coarse canvas bags, and trampled under foot in a vat, from which the juice runs into a large receiver. That is the first juice. The bags are then emptied, and the fruit taken to the wine-press. A second and inferior juice is now expressed. These two kinds form the ordinary beverage of the community, and are seldom if ever exported. To make the high-class wines, they collect one hundred quarts, if possible, of dry bunches or single grapes, and put them into a barrel without a head, while a small hole, bored in the bottom, is armed with a quill or straw reed. Through this opening, with no pressure but the weight of the fruit itself, the syrupy liquor called Tokay essence is slowly exuded, drop by drop. One hundred quarts of grapes give one or two gallons of essence, according to the propitiousness of the season ; the less the quantity, the better the quality. This keeps without any further preparation, and is highly valued. Little of this extract, however, is reserved by the proprietor, as it is generally used to flavour the first-class wines ; but when retained, it is left in the wood thirty or forty years before it is bottled, and is then worth 3*l.* or 4*l.* sterling the imperial pint, for original Tokay bottles seldom contain more.

After the essence has been thus extracted, the dry grapes are placed in layers in a capacious vat, and well trodden by four or five men. This operation converts the fruit into a kind of liquid paste : it is a long and fatiguing task. It is next transferred to another vessel, about seven-eighths of which is then filled up with the must of the clear grapes. The mixture is covered over with rushes, and left to ferment for a time, varying from four-and-twenty to thirty-six hours, according to circumstances or the kind of grapes employed, to local maxims or the judgment of the proprietor, when the liquor is strained through a bag and put into barrels, which are not again opened or ever filled up. The wine, thus left to itself for two or three years, forms an abundant deposit, filling a sixth, sometimes even a quarter of the cask ; but this sediment is the *nurse* of the wine, say the growers, and Germans, Poles, and Russians all take it with its lees, and double or triple their quantity of Tokay by adding other wine to the dregs. One hundred and fifty quarts of the must of the clear bunches, with thirty more of the thick juice of dry grapes, form the *one-measure* Tokay. When 60 quarts of the latter are used, it is called two-measure ; when 90, three-measure ; and when 120, four-measure. Essence in proportion to the quantity of thick juice used is then added to each barrel, and thus are formed the superior and high-class wines of Tokay.

When the wine is strained through a bag into the barrel it leaves a residuum, which is thrown into a vat and must of clear bunches poured over it ; the mixture is well stirred up, left to ferment a short time, and then put into barrels *without any essence*. This is the fair middling wine, not so sweet as the others, but full-bodied, strong, and possessing a fragrant bouquet : it is named *máslás*. Now, in middling years, or when the grapes are not plentiful, or have not dried well on the vine, or are not perfect enough to make *essence*, the clear bunches and dry grapes are pressed all together, and the wine thus obtained is of much higher character than the ordinary kind, or even than the *máslás* : this is called Szamorodny, and is, perhaps, the most pleasing type of all the Tokay class. Besides these graduated qualities there is also the delicious muscatel Tokay, an exceedingly scarce wine,

"fit," remarks a gifted son of the soil, "to be drunk out of diamond goblets, an Olympic nectar worthy of the gods, a divine harmony of strength, sweetness, and aroma." Thus the royal wine of Hungary is made just as nature yields it, without any admixture, without warming or freezing, without brandy or sugar, without perfuming or distilling. Every year has its peculiar shade of colour, every barrel its own precise flavour and individuality. "It is, indeed," continues our enthusiastic author, "a delicious, sublime, ethereal, phosphoric, poetic liquor, of a prodigiously invigorating power, and without any excess of alcohol. I know of nothing equivalent to this wondrous volcanic transudation, or a truer vindication of the old Roman adage, *Neque vinum nisi Hungaricum*."

This proud saying of a patriotic and earnest people might readily obtain practical verification were it only diligently sought for. Their country, with its 1,120,000 registered acres already planted with vines, yielding annually about thirty million gallons of wine, places her high among the leading wine-countries of Europe; and this amount of production, large though it be, is far below the capabilities of the realm under a more favourable developement of its natural resources: thousands of acres on eligible slopes and sunny hills still remain vacant, waiting only for expert hands to exact double and treble the amount of previous returns, excellent in quality as well as bounteous in quantity.

The vintages of Hungary have been happily defined by a competent English traveller and connoisseur as being drier than French wines, more mellow than those of the Rhine, and more piquant than the choicest of Spain. The varieties include both red and white sorts, and form four distinct classes; viz. liqueur wines, good dry table wines, effervescent wines, and wines of local consumption. The better descriptions are principally of mountain growth; of the white, more than half have their origin in the plains. Hardly any are so light and delicate as those of Médoc, but many of them can fairly compete with the Bordeaux and Burgundies. The liqueur sorts are the finest the country produces, but it is amongst the dry, generous table wines that body and aroma are found in perfection: these are full and spirituous,

and further remarkable for what is termed "rich fruity flavour," carrying at the same time an agreeable after-taste, and exhaling a delicate evanescent fragrance. The choice white growths exhibit rather more alcoholic strength, are cleaner, drier, very exhilarating, and esteemed as being exceedingly wholesome. The effervescent wines known as "Hungarian Champagne," are made almost exclusively in the Presburg commune. The sweet sorts are called *ausbrüchs* in German, *aszu* in Hungarian, and resemble the *vins de paille* of France; and a prevailing notion that foreigners prefer sweet wines to all others, led to the substitution of artificially-scented raisin and other liquors, whereby a most incorrect notion of those choice productions has been extensively disseminated. The district of Arad, commonly known also as that of Mènes, owing to the first plantations of vineyards having been made in the particular domain of that village, comprises a fine chain of hills, which extend along the southern bank of the Maros river to the eastward, towards the higher projecting chain of the Carpathians, of which they form a terminal spur. The most celebrated vineyards are situated away from the river to the southward, occupying the basking declivities of the hills; but they extend, also, into the populous plain of Arad. The choicest spots are those lying on the slopes around Menesch, the hill-side of Paülis, and that no less renowned of Magyarath. The wines of this locality are mostly red, but those best known out of the district are the *ausbrüchs*, both white and red. As a general rule, the pale wines of Arad are not so generous as the red, and, with some exceptions, are apt to be austere and tart.

The importance of this branch of agriculture for the welfare of the country is manifest; and it is only natural that the vintage season should constitute quite an event in village life, and be looked forward to by its people with absorbing interest. To possess a strip of vineyard, however circumscribed, is the ambition of nearly every member of an eligible locality; he would rather deprive himself of almost every comfort than part with it, and on the near approach of vintage-tide it engrosses all his attention and labour. For the week or fortnight during which the annual gathering lasts, an odd admixture of hard work and amusement

everywhere prevails ; and by it a general outing is promoted, in which high and low, citizens and peasants, eagerly take part. Much, however, of its primitive originality and freedom is visibly on the decline in many localities, and shorn of much of its former hilarity. Whoever, then, would take advantage of one of the yet remaining occasions for witnessing the exercise of antiquated Hungarian hospitality, should visit the mountain slopes around Buda at this happy juncture. Not a soul, young or old, burgher or villager, rich or poor, who can in any way contrive it, will fail to be present, and a muster of a whole population may be viewed fraternizing together in the open air. Every dwelling near the vine-grounds, down to the humblest and poorest, is full of rollicking guests, who sally forth from the early one o'clock dinner to spend the afternoon and evening in unrestrained jollity till a late hour, winding up finally with supper, dancing, singing, and flirting, varied with fire-works and all sorts of impromptu pastimes for young and old, thus spontaneously congregated in happy unity of mind and purpose.

An opportune publication—*Notes on Hungarian Wines*, emanating from the pen of M. de Szèmere, ex-Minister of Public Instruction for Hungary,—furnishes much novel and valuable information respecting the vintages of his country, and its capabilities of meeting the demands of an active and extended commerce. Her resources he clearly shows to be far from trivial, either in character or quantity:—

“The annual production amounts,” he goes on to say, “to upwards of 360,000,000 gallons, raised from vineyards covering no less than 1,200,000 hectares of land,” whilst he further testifies to their relative superiority in strength and vinous flavour over the ordinary growths of France or the Rhine. “These sterling advantages may be reasonably ascribed to the natural properties of the soil, to the character of the grape, to the peculiarity of the climate, and not a little, perhaps, to the circumstance that the vine-grounds, for the most part, are situated on dry sunny hill-slopes of considerable altitude. To this may be further added, what perhaps is equally essential, that the vintagers, despising the modern utilitarian heresy of preferring quantity to flavour and quality, loyally uphold the contrary doctrine, under which a favourable aspect and a congenial locality is with them an all-prevailing consideration ; and the

poor, light, stony, granitic ground, from whence pre-eminent wines of high character can alone be raised, is preferred to a rich and alluvial soil, where quality must necessarily be sacrificed to fecundity. Hence produce of a very low standard is uncommon in Hungary, even as applicable to the most ordinary purposes, for the practice of adding water to the murk, or other modes of dilution, is but rarely practised, and then only for the use of the vintager's own workfolk ; whilst any tampering with the superior table wines would be altogether useless, owing to their inimitable intrinsic characteristics. This, combined with a fixed aversion to inferiority or retrocession in any shape, will serve to uphold the national desire to maintain whatever perfection nature has placed at the disposal of an industrious people, and which the fertilizing influence of energy and commerce may soon call into wider action. . . . A questionable custom is well known to exist, of infusing brandy, more or less, in all wines destined for England. Thus the Rhine wines receive an addition of 2·5, the French 4·7, Spanish and Portuguese 8·15 per cent. of raw spirit. But, notwithstanding such adventitious aids, Rhenish products seldom mark above 10·14 degrees of Sykes' hydrometer, and the best Clarets barely reach 18° ; whereas pure and unsophisticated Hungarian growths, when officially tested at the London Customs, exhibited the following results :—

" Buda, red table wine	21·1	Neszmély, white table	19·4
Eger	21·5	Balaton	20·6
Szegszárd	22·8	Bakator	20·6
Mènes, 1842	23·0	Tokaj (dry)	23·6"

But the question of mere strength is not the sole element to be studied in respect of the wines of any particular country, and it may be proper to inquire how far natural Hungarian wine is imbued with body sufficient to bear the pressure and exigence of age. On this point the ex-Minister is very explicit, for he maintains that—

" If there be a country where real old wines are to be found, it is Hungary. This important fact has its correlative reasons : first, from the circumstance that Hungary, like England, is a land of large estates. There are proprietors who make yearly from 1,000 to 20,000 hogsheads of wine. Beautiful and enormous cellars, cut in rocky mountains, extend their dark ramifications like labyrinths or catacombs, where the wines are ranged year after year. It is a kind of aristocratic and family glory to have a full and rich cellar. The grand-children can drink the wine of their progenitors, and gratefully remember the past old times.

Some owners would not sell their produce even if they could do so, but that is not always an easy matter in Hungary. Why? Because—and that is the second reason—the consumption there is very moderate. The ladies never habitually take any thing but water; the men of the upper classes are temperate from principle and habit; the lower orders from necessity and usage. Therefore, in proportion to the number of its inhabitants comparatively but little wine, and less brandy, is consumed; so that it may be fairly said that Hungary with France, the largest wine-producing countries of the world, are at the same time two of the most temperate.”

But notwithstanding so much domestic abstention, foreign exports continue to be exceedingly limited. Some of their finest wines, as Tokay and Mènes, it is true, figured on the banqueting tables of many a European sovereign two centuries ago; but with the great mass suited for table use very little trade was attempted; and notwithstanding the fame of Hungarian wine had penetrated far beyond where it had ever been seen or tasted, the nation continued supine or indifferent to commercial enterprise.

“Rich without money,” continues our author, “poor without want, the Hapsburg dynasty did nothing for a community which kept so pertinaciously to itself the sovereign right of ways and means; and I do not hesitate to affirm, that the good, natural, high Hungarian wine is yet comparatively unknown in England. The last reason which proves the existence of old wines in Hungary is, that its exportation hitherto having been so extremely limited, the large accumulations cannot possibly be exhausted. How much time is indispensable for bringing wines to their perfect maturity may fairly be questioned, and must remain matter of opinion; but in this respect Hungarian produce will bear the test of strict investigation. Some of count Szirmay’s Tokay of 1808, on being submitted to a careful scrutiny, proved full of ardour and flavour; so that between this wine and the growths of 1827 and 1834 no deterioration from age was perceptible, the only difference apparent being the special character appertaining to their respective years of vintage. The demand for these wines has heretofore extended but little beyond the northern states of Europe; and although its commerce has received some impulse within the last ten years, of the two and a half million gallons exported in 1857, two or three thousand at most may be said to have reached Great Britain.”

A sealed book as the commercial capabilities of Hungary have

so long continued, the expanded views here presented of the magnitude and importance of her natural powers of production might, perhaps, be thought somewhat overcharged, or too sanguine to be faithful, for but comparatively few persons in this country are aware of the vast store of vinous treasures subsisting in this obscure and seemingly ungenial corner of Europe; yet the novel and important facts so ably chaperoned by M. de Szèmere are by no means chimerical, and his revelations receive striking corroboration from the independent testimony of Mr. J. W. Douglas, one of the Commissioners deputed by the English Board of Customs to inquire into "the strength and merits of the several continental wines," who in his official report* does not hesitate to say, that—

"Pure Hungarian wine, as an article of commerce, is actually as yet unknown in England. While possessing a great resemblance to the wines of Burgundy and the Rhine, the better sorts have greater body and strength, and would be more likely to suit the English taste; but to succeed in this country they must be imported direct from the growers, who do not adulterate their wines,—indeed they are generally so good that they would certainly be deteriorated if alcohol were added. But the dealers dilute them with water, and this treatment has obtained for Hungarian wines a character they do not deserve. The quantity now in hand there is enormous, and I am assured that when good seasons follow one another, so greatly is the yield in excess of the consumption, that wine is distilled, made into vinegar, or even thrown away, for the sake of casks for the new crop; and in some places corn tillage has superseded that of the vine, as paying better. Hitherto wine has not been grown by them with a view to exportation. The Hungarians, primitive, simple, and poor, are satisfied with what they can get with little trouble, and content to live from hand to mouth. There is no industrial or commercial organization; there exists a perfect ignorance of the ways of commerce, and an indifference to the acquisition of a knowledge of them. The method of cultivation as ordinarily pursued is capable of improvement, and both manufacture and manipulation are very defective, whilst the cost of transport to distant ports and places constitutes a constant and serious obstacle; yet, with all its disadvantages, there is probably no country in which so great a proportion of good wine is made."

* *Parliamentary Return*, April 1862.

It may be some time before the wines of Hungary will acquire a cosmopolitan reputation ; but once generally adopted by the educated and refined middle classes of this country, they will have reason to be grateful for the vast addition to their means of innocent festivity, of health and cheerfulness, and restoration from sickness which these excellent and fragrant vintages will confer on them. Hungarian proprietors, it is true, are not oppressively enterprising, and instead of seeking to create an external demand, they are content to wait till shrewder traders and merchants come to their homesteads.

“Go, then, stranger,” records its native champion, “and see the plantations during the busy hours of vintage ; choose the clearest and driest grapes, and decide for yourself, for the traveller is free to come and go, and do as he pleases : without invitation of any kind he will always be welcomed by the frank-hearted villager. At all times, by night as well as in the day, hospitality is the law in Hungary ; but at harvest-time the houses no longer belong to their masters. The vintage, dear to the hearts of all, is a national and universal festival, an annual and sacred jubilee, during which people forgive each other ; during which all embrace, and help, and love one another. The castle on the hill and the cottage in the valley open their doors ; poor and rich sit down, and drink and eat. The music hails your presence as a blessed guest ; these ducal carriages with their four well-harnessed steeds will take you wherever you desire. Here are the vineyards : walk in ! Gather and taste as you list, for the bunches are large and luscious, walls and hedges scarce. And when you are tired with concerts, grapes, and feasts, of bonfires and fireworks, just knock at the first house you come to and ask for a bed. Keep your money : give no name. Who here wants your purse or your passport ? Everyone has smiled and bowed to the traveller, and welcomed without knowing him : why should he insult them ? O splendid remnants of ancient brotherhood ! loving and holy confidence of man in his fellow ! . . . Alas ! thus was it,” exclaims, with tearful eye, the patriot exile whose words are here cited, “at least before 1849, when Hungary still was free. But now, thanks to despotism, the Hungarian has lost his native confidence, his pristine benevolence and generosity. Open-handed as was once his nature, unstinted hospitality has succumbed to indispensable economy and thrift, for his burdens are augmented fivefold. He who formerly knew nothing about stamps or surcharges, monopoly or excise, has now to struggle against the griping

hand of the tax-gatherer. Yet a few years and you will be emptied, glorious family cellars ! The old wine must needs be sold, for the royal imposts are heavy and exhaustive."—*De Szèmere*.

The wines from the BÀNAT are both white and red ; the former being the more abundant, but generally speaking inferior, and the pale bright-red class, a good sound dry wine, the most esteemed. Besides these, two varieties of liqueur-wine are made ; the one a proper ausbruch and very luscious, derived from withered fruit, the other resulting from evaporation of the must, and checking fermentation with mustard and other stimulating ingredients. The wine districts are divided into three principal sections ; viz. Vershetz, Weisskirchen, and Mehadia. The hilly slopes are for the most part very gentle, the prevailing aspect south and south-east. Vershetz itself is a very considerable town, and the first plantation in the district is attributed to a colony of Germans, chiefly from the wine regions of the Rhine and Moselle, who had formed part of the army of prince Eugène. The present vineyards, however, are of later date, as they were almost entirely destroyed during the inroad made by the Turks in 1788, and subsequently replanted on a larger scale. The vintage takes place about the end of September, or early in October ; but good cellarage is everywhere scarce, so that the wine, to its great detriment, has to be removed before it is fit. The town of Weisskirchen, about twenty-five miles south-east of Vershetz, occupies a pleasant and attractive site on a declivity, and at the base of surrounding semi-circular hills. The climate is remarkably mild ; spring frosts are extremely rare ; hail-storms, generally so injurious to the vine, are infrequent ; the summer heat is great, but not oppressive, owing to the prevailing breezes from the Balkan and Dinaric Alps, preserving freshness without imparting chilliness to the atmosphere. The wines of the Mehadian district possess considerable merit, and the aggregate production is larger than that of Weisskirchen. The vineyards of the BÀNAT are mostly regular, and the stocks are planted close to one another. The soil of the elevated slopes consists mainly of a yellowish loam, mingled with slaty shingle and marl ; and as the choicest liquors are derived from the growths of the

upper level, the hill-ground, though it does not yield rateably more than half that of the plain, is most valued and generally preferred. The district of Buda, situate on the west bank of the Danube, opposite the town of Pesth, yields a stout red wine, which was once in great favour in this country.

The wines of AUSTRIA are as diverse as its population. At the extreme south they are very full-bodied, and so dark that when mixed with an equal quantity of water they are quite as deep in colour as the ordinary wines of Bordeaux; while in the more northern districts they are exceedingly poor, and as sour as the roughest cider. Some possess the luscious character of Constantia and the muscat growths of Frontignan and Lunel; others are disagreeably bitter; others again are so astringent as to excite involuntary contraction of the organs of gustation; and whilst a few of the lighter varieties exhibit the delicacy if not the fragrance of some of the Rheingau vintages, a select growth or two will bear comparison with many of the better sorts of either Rhenish, French, or Spanish origin. Of these, the produce of Transylvania stands first. The greatest future, however, is probably reserved to the Hungarian, lower Austrian, and Dalmatian wines,—the latter, as well as the coast-land growths, being principally of a kind suitable for dessert. In Venetian Dalmatia they make a wine at Sibenico called Maraschina, whence the name of the *liqueur* Maraschino di Zara, in the same territory. In Moldavia the vineyards near Cotnar produce a wine of a green colour, which deepens with age. It is nearly as spirituous as brandy, and by many is preferred to Tokay. In Moravia several generous wines are made; and in the Tyrol we meet with a few red varieties of a very useful quality, but not in excess of the requirements of its own population, by whom it is all consumed. In recent years the trade in Austrian wines has made considerable progress, and, with the growing means of improved transport, there is fair reason to expect a still greater extension. Efforts are being made to increase their export, especially to the East, to Russia, and to the north of Germany. It is an ascertained fact, that even the inferior sorts of the cool Austrian vintage are superior to the beverages commonly procurable in the East.

They possess the great advantage of keeping well in hot climates, and may suitably meet the requirements and convenience of communities where the wine-consuming population greatly outnumber the Mahomedans.

It might have been reasonably expected that the cooler regions of the north of Europe would have checked the blighting march of the vine-pestilence ; but although its invasion was partial, and its general effect less destructive, the ravages it committed in Frioul, Dalmatia, and in the southern Tyrol were very severe. The injury occasioned by the inroad of the malady in the provinces it infested gradually augmented until it affected a moiety of the vines, when it slowly abated, and finally disappeared altogether. During the prevalence of the disease in France, large consignments of the Hungarian wines were sold by French merchants as genuine Bordeaux—no light circumstance, for although, perhaps, they cannot compete with the best produce of the Bordelais, they certainly rival successfully French wines of the second order.

In RUSSIA vines have been planted over a considerable surface of the southern portion of the empire, including the provinces of the Cherson, Podolia, the Crimea, the valley of the Don, and the Caucasus ; but their culture in these provinces is comparatively still in its infancy, and although the wines have to make their way to distinction and fame, the industry and perseverance of the natives may yet find a suitable reward. Vine-grounds were first laid out in the Crimea at the commencement of the present century on the suggestion of M. Pallas, an accomplished naturalist, cuttings for which were procured both from Asia and Europe, and French farmers and vine-dressers appointed to rear and manage them. Their labours have been so far successful that Russia, it is said, could produce wines enough in the Crimean territory to meet the requirements of her own consumption. The beauty and fertility of the eastern valley of Soudak always awaken the admiration of travellers, where the number and luxuriance of the vineyards present one of the most charming scenes in Europe. At one time the Crimean cultivators prepared thick wines, or rather syrups, as well as confections,

from the produce of their vines, and distilled brandy from the refuse of the grapes. But this has now ceased ; they seek their advantage in the sale of wines, which are thought to be the best in the empire ; and judging from the comments and opinions of tourists, and of many who drank them during the recent war, some of the vintages are of more than average merit. The fierce campaign of 1855, however, and the prolonged siege and destruction of the formidable fortress of Sebastopol, occasioned sad havoc in the surrounding districts, and many a smiling and prolific vineyard was then devastated or totally uprooted. The plantations of Astracan are of much older formation, and the grapes, which were first introduced there from Persia by an ecclesiastic in the fourteenth century, have long been noted for their size and flavour. In the time of Peter the Great, Astracan grapes, then in high esteem, were conveyed to St. Petersburg for the royal table on account of their richness and beauty. They always bear a high price in that city from the cost and care necessary in the carriage. Both red and white wines are produced in Astracan, where twenty different sorts are said to be grown. The vines are protected from the extreme severity of the winter by a covering of earth or stubble. The lower portions of the Caucasian mountain range abound in corn, honey, fruit, and wine, much of the latter being distilled into brandy, chiefly for the St. Petersburg market. On the opposite shores of the Black Sea, in the teeming jungles of Imeritia and Mingrelia, the vine grows wild to this day. These provinces comprehend the ancient Colchis, which is considered by some as the original home of the noble plant ; and here it still thrives more vigorously and fruitful than elsewhere on the face of the globe. Marvellous, indeed, are the tales of travellers :—

“The vine here,” remarks a diligent observer, “outruns the most skilful and successful gardening. I never saw it wild before ; hung thick with clusters of small berries, it ran over the rocks and up the trees,—bounds in artless garlands over the gorges, and bears its fruit plentifully amid the thorny brake : all in vain, however, did it tempt the thirsty wayfarer, and its tart berries ripened and fell unplucked. . . . Plants which humbly crawl on the ground in Europe here boldly climb the

loftiest trees, and spread their foliage in graceful multiform curves. The cucumber and the melon creep after their more aspiring brother—the vine of Colchis, attaining a splendour, a vigour, and a size utterly unknown to the native European.”

In the neighbouring province of Georgia the hills are covered with forests of timber trees encircled with vines perfectly wild, but producing vast quantities of grapes, and productive of much wine and brandy. The skins of animals with the hair outwards are the vessels used for storage, but from carelessness and faulty manufacture the bulk rarely keeps to the succeeding vintage.

The wines grown in the Russian empire, large in amount as they appear, bear no comparison to the quantity of ardent spirit consumed by its rude, serf-like population. About thirty million gallons of coarse brandy are every year distilled in that country, besides a variety of other liquors; yet, notwithstanding such a large native production, no less than a million of roubles have been paid, for years together, on the import of wine into St. Petersburg alone. A free consumption of stimulating drinks would seem to be a fixed national characteristic with these sons of the far north; and even Peter the Great himself, it is said, combined his great sagacity, profound purpose, and acute intelligence with the habits of a sot, and the manners of a bear. Whilst in this country with a laudable desire to master the mystery of naval architecture, he found a congenial spirit in a son of the duke of Leeds, an enthusiastic amateur sailor and boat-builder, as well as an inordinate toper, with whom he would pass whole evenings drinking brandy spiced with pepper. On one occasion, before going for an evening's entertainment at the theatre, it is recorded of him that, besides a pint of brandy and a bottle of sherry, the Czar “floored eight bottles of sack after dinner.”





SECTION XII.

“Young wits that wash
Away their cash
In wine and recreation,
And hate dull beer,
Are welcome here
To give their approbation.”

JORDAN'S Fancy Festivals.

The Wines of South Africa.

AFRICA, once the scene of mighty conflicts and barbaric splendour, can no longer boast of its ancient Mareotic or its peerless Ethiopian ambrosial growths ; and whatever adaptability for the grape the southern shores of the Mediterranean may have exhibited in the classic ages, the production of wine disappeared with the ascendance of the prophet of Islam ; with few exceptions, the remotest point of Africa may be said to be the only spot on that vast continent that now sustains a vintage. The heat and aridity in some parts, and the excessive richness of the soil in others, are equally opposed to perfection in the grape : the vines, once so famed, are now cultivated principally for their shade, and the fruit is neglected, or dried for making raisins. Deserts of burning sand and a savage population occupy the middle portion of this quarter of the globe, and it is only at European settlements in the southern hemisphere that civilization has introduced one of its most abiding luxuries on any extensive scale or with any prospect of success.

Although the wines of no country are more tart and piquant than those of Africa, yet nowhere can be found a grape more agreeable to the palate in its juicy firmness,—a circumstance which may probably have gained for it in past times the name of the “hard grape.” Pliny, indeed, asserts that in the interior of Africa clusters were known to exceed the body of an infant in

size ; and in the cultivated lands around Algiers grapes of superior quality thrive in some abundance. Wine of a higher order has long been made there by members of the Hebrew race ; but the desolating visitations of the locust, no less than the mandates of the Koran, oppose a serious obstacle to a free tillage of the vine, which is left to the industry of people of an alien creed, though, in secret, numbers among the Faithful do not scruple to quaff the enticing draught with much gusto. Since, however, the colonization of Algeria by the French, the settlers have laboured to extend the culture of the grape in the districts occupied by them, and their exertions have been attended with commensurate results. The species selected for planting were chiefly the Burgundy *chasselas*, the *alicante*, and the *grenache*. They thrive freely, and are very productive ; but the quality of the wine is not all that could be desired.

Until the subjection of the Cape of Good Hope by the Dutch, no systematic viticulture in southern Africa had been attempted ; but on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in 1685, many French Protestant families emigrated to the colony, taking with them the vines of their country,—the red and white muscat, then, as now, very abundant at Frontignan, which proved a timely accession to the infant plantations. The climate is well known to be exceedingly favourable to vegetation. Fruits are ripened on the west coast of the colony in the greatest perfection ; and no part of the world, perhaps, produces plants and flowers more distinguished for the elegance of their forms and colours than southern Africa. Resembling in temperature that of the south of Europe, it further affords every facility to the husbandman, and repays his care with early and abundant harvests. But for a due melioration of the vine, excellence of climate is not the only requisite, and the nature of the soil has often a yet more immediate influence on the quality of the fruit. It should have been remembered, too, that really fine wines cannot be raised from land adapted for the production of corn. Sandy tracts, slaty hill-sides, shales, the *debris* of the older rocks, the sites of extinct volcanoes, &c., afford the best soil for vineyards ; whilst the fat

loam which produces wheat in abundance will not grow a delicate wine. It would thus seem as though Providence, in arranging for the great staple articles of subsistence by which man lives and rejoices, has so ordered things that they shall never encroach upon each other's dominions. In these essentials for successful viticulture the Cape, it would seem, is somewhat deficient : few of the grounds first appropriated to vineyards contain the strata most suitable to the plant, and the produce, probably, thus contracted some of that flatness of taste common to wines grown in uncongenial ground. The vine does not require a rich subsoil ; but if the subsoil is bad, so will be the wine. The predominant land of the colony consists of a stiff clay, impenetrable to culture until thoroughly moistened with rain, and, to some extent, of a light red sand, capable of extreme fertility whenever it is sufficiently irrigated. The country, on every side, is penetrated by ranges of naked mountains, and, where these eminences form a channel for the floods of the monsoon, or natural springs arise, a singular luxuriance clothes the contiguous vales : the plain next the sea is covered with a deep and fertile mould, watered by numerous rivulets, and beautifully diversified with countless trees, plants, and shrubs, but the largest portion of the wide-extended plains seems abandoned to hopeless sterility. The operations of nature, however, are here conducted in singular extremes. Where iron or its oxides are liberally mixed with the clay, and the fertilizing aid of the feeblest rill can be brought to bear upon the compost, astonishing fecundity usually ensues. Some of the best grapes in the colony are grown on these spots. In fruits, flowers, or graceful and enchanting shrubs, no country exceeds the Cape. The grapes, oranges, figs, peaches, apricots, plums, and other products of the temperate zone flourish in the greatest abundance and perfection, and strawberries are gathered ripe all the year round. No grapes on the continent of Europe are thought to be superior to those of this colony.

Time was, indeed, when Africa was the centre of production as well as the birth-place of science ; when Egypt, the cradle and nursery of learning and the arts, engrossed to herself the wisdom

and riches of the world,—and Egypt is still the land of mystery. Governed from a very remote period by its own kings, forming one of the earliest civilized communities known, possessing a vast population, with numerous cities, palaces, noble temples, and monuments of astonishing grandeur, its prosperity and opulence must have been very great. In the course of time, however, it fell under the yoke of the conquering Persians, and was afterwards subjugated by Alexander the Great. Under the later dynasty of the Ptolemies, Egypt's waning influence again revived, and the sage administration of the second of that race, surnamed Philadelphus, who was born in the isle of Cos 309 years before Christ, restored the kingdom to much of the pristine power and grandeur of the Pharaohs. But the second Ptolemy owed his fame less to the sagacity or good fortune of his government, than to the succour and countenance he unceasingly bestowed on letters, science, and the fine arts. He developed rapidly the scientific institutions founded by his father: in the colossal structure of the Alexandrian library were accumulated all the treasures of learning and knowledge of a past antiquity, and its museum received with generous hospitality the most distinguished men of letters of the period. Zenodote and the poet Callimachus were the first librarians. Among the crowd of illustrious men who adorned the regal court were the poets Philetas and Theocritus, the philosophers Hegesias and Theodorus, the astronomers Timocharis, Aristarchus of Samos, and Aratus; and under the roof of his palace it was that Euclid, the world-famed geometrician, completed his invaluable work. In his reign Manéthon rendered the chronicles of Egypt into Greek, and by his order were translated into the same language the holy scriptures of the Jews. The arts received no less encouragement; yet whilst architecture flourished in grandeur, Ptolemy was never able to institute a school of painting or of sculpture. Under his example and fostering care Egypt became the main seat of Grecian learning and refinement; whilst, as a steady and zealous promoter of commerce, and every kind of public improvement, he enriched himself and his people to an extent scarcely credible. His treasury was said to contain not less than 740,000 talents of gold;

he maintained a permanent army of 200,000 fantassins and 40,000 cavaliers, together with a numerous fleet of ships, some of which were of enormous dimensions. Such an aggregation of wealth and intelligence, although wielded by a monarch commonly regarded as but little removed from the pale of pagan barbarism, will render more comprehensible the significance and reality of the famous triumphal procession, unparalleled in its magnificence, enjoined by that enlightened prince, as minutely described at much length by Callixenus in his *History of Alexandria*, who concludes his marvellous tale with a brave attempt to count up the cost :—"And the expense of money which was incurred on this occasion amounted to 2,239 talents* and 50 minæ ; and this was all counted by the clerks of the treasury before the spectacle came to an end."

The principal vineyards at the Cape are situate in the hilly districts around the capital, where the brightness of the atmosphere and equality of the temperature are highly favourable to grape culture. Yet the proper choice of a site for a vinery was seldom or never considered by the Dutch settlers, who first commenced planting under the governorship of Von Riebeeck in 1650. The fertility of some of the land near the early settlements was very great, yet not on that account alone more adapted for raising the vine : plantations were heedlessly formed on ineligible spots very soon after the settlers were located, and notwithstanding the existence of many self-imposed obstacles, they thrived well, and are still tended with unabated confidence and zeal.

"The man," notes a well-known writer of that period, "who first transplanted the grape of Burgundy to the Cape of Good Hope, (observe he was a Dutchman,) never dreamt of drinking the same wine at the Cape that the like grape produced on the French soil,—he was too phlegmatic for that. Undoubtedly he expected to drink some sort of vinous liquor ; but whether good, bad, or indifferent, he knew enough of this world to see that it did not depend upon his choice, but that what is generally called *chance* was to decide his success. However, he hoped for the best ; and in these hopes, by an intemperate confidence in the fortitude of his head and the depth of his discretion, Mynheer might

* A talent among the Greeks was equivalent to 193*l.* 15*s.* ; with the Romans the greater talent was valued at 99*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, and the lesser at 60*l.*

possibly overset both in his new vineyard, and, by discovering his nakedness, become a laughing-stock to his people."—*Sentimental Journey*.

The vine-growers, or wine-boers as they are called at the Cape, are amongst the most opulent cultivators of the soil in the colony. The size of their farms is usually about 120 acres, the land being for the most part freehold, and exempt almost from taxation of any description. Stellenbosch, a considerable wine district north of False Bay, is so named from the then governor Stel and the bushes that covered it. He, with more than Dutch cupidity, seized upon large portions of territory for himself, and drew a great profit from the plantations and corn-fields in that part of the colony. To obviate the deficiency of moisture during the exhaustive dry season, he constructed a reservoir in the mountains to irrigate his farms and vines, conveying the surplus water in a channel by his wine-stores to a mill where he ground his corn.

Drakenstein, another settlement north-east of Stellenbosch, was founded by the French immigrants soon after their arrival in Africa. Through the indolence or ignorance, however, which then prevailed, it would appear that land more applicable for the growth of corn was indiscriminately appropriated to the use of the grape; consequently in no country was there greater room for improvement, and none in which energy and science would earlier have exhibited their healing influence. But the avarice of the primitive Dutch farmers, like their inveterate adherence to established custom, was long ineradicable; and notwithstanding they had before their eyes, in the fine plantations of Constantia, the beneficial results of appropriate soil and site, they declined to profit by the example, or take any pains to select the fittest locality for their vine-grounds, but persevered in establishing them as convenience prompted, or wherever they were likely to gather the heaviest crop. This improvident oversight was all the more reprehensible, as there were many inviting slopes well adapted for the purpose; but these were disregarded and passed over by inexperienced settlers for ground chosen from caprice, for facility of access, or the mistaken policy of the planters. Their descendants are still the cultivators, and although

with them amendment can hardly be otherwise than slow; progress has been made, and the vintages are unquestionably better now than they were only a few years since. There is no reason why their labours should not ultimately reverse former unsatisfactory results: except a volcanic soil, there are traces of every other kind of land congenial to the vine, and doubtless, with plantations now transferred to better sites, and due care in cultivating, harvesting, and discreet manipulation of the grape, a vast deal of wholesome and annually improving wine will be produced.

On the western side of the valley of Drakenstein stands the village of Paarl, surrounded by a fertile tract of land, and especially distinguished by a curious mass of granite, surmounted by a number of large pebbly stones like the pearls of a necklace, to which it owes its name. Here the vine is sedulously cultivated, and in this solitary glen some of the best table-wines of the colony are grown. Paarl is peculiarly situated, and presents a somewhat singular aspect, being inaccessible on three sides, and rising about 400 feet from its base to the summit, where it measures a full mile in circumference. The slopes of the mountain side form a perfect garden of curious and beautiful plants, and a bright and cheerful feeling pervades the atmosphere around. In the autumn, the exquisite scenery of this lovely spot is further heightened by the presence of flocks of a beautiful bird called *the creeper*, some of which unite the most enchanting powers of song with their own elegant and attractive plumage.

The wines of South Africa comprise both red and white varieties, the larger portion being dry. Besides the delicious Constantia, others excellent of their kind are obtained at Paarl, as well as from the vineyards of Drakenstein and Stellenbosch. The fruit is rich, full, and large, but being allowed in many cases to ripen on the bare ground, it may have imbibed the earthy taint once considered a characteristic of the wine. It is not improbable, therefore, that this peculiarity was derived from the stalks and stems, for all went into the vat together, the whole management being chiefly confided to negroes. The culture, too, was formerly exceedingly faulty, the process of fermentation unskilfully conducted; the preliminary operations were rude and

slovenly performed, whilst, in order to raise the greatest possible quantity of grapes, the farmers, regardless alike of vinous flavour or quality, resorted to the reprehensible practice of manuring their vines with fresh litter; and wherever they had a good command of water, they further impaired the fruit by excess of irrigation. But obstacles such as these are not insurmountable, and much amelioration has already attended better methods of tillage, and the application of more care, skill, and discrimination in the ordinary course of manufacture.

Such having been the imperfect mode of conducting the vintage, it can hardly be matter of surprise that for a time so much of its produce proved inferior and unpalatable. The only exceptions deserving special notice are the growths of the upper and lower Constantia, so named after the wife of the Dutch governor, Van der Stel, their founder: the plantation forms two contiguous properties, situate at the eastern base of Table-mountain, about eight miles from Cape-town, and midway between False and Table bays. It lies directly under the hilly range, a circumstance to which the peculiar and productive powers of the ground are, no doubt, in great part to be attributed. The first vines, which were of the muscatel species, were brought from Shiraz.

“The vineyards rest on gently undulating ground, well open to the south; they are protected by the adjacent mountain from the north and west winds, and surrounded by a leafy screen of fine tall oaks. The ordinary visitor is surprised at the small elevation of the vines, few of them rising higher than two feet, though many of them have been planted upwards of a century. Still this peculiarity is very advantageous, for the fruit hangs so near the ground, that the reflection of the sun from the white earth is almost as beneficial to the grape as its rays from above. The occult properties existing in peculiar combinations of soil for developing the highest vinous properties are well illustrated in the experience of Mynheer Colyn, the present wealthy and hospitable proprietor of little Constantia, who sees it is quite true that the Constantia grape will not attain perfection when planted even twenty paces on either side of its own limits, and for such uncongenial plots the common Cape grape is consequently adopted in preference.”—*Captain Mundy's Sketches on a Tour in India.*

The soil of this valuable estate is a red ochreous chalky marl and white sandy gravel, impregnated with oxide of iron: the area is of very moderate dimensions, and divided into two parts, separated merely by a hedge,—the former producing the red sweet wine, the latter the white sort, and also a wine called Cape Hock. The vintage is conducted with much care, the grapes being freed from the stalks, and blemished fruit and other impurities removed before they are pressed. As the whole quantity of sweet wine annually made does not much exceed one hundred pipes, the price is high and well maintained. The produce of both grounds is similar in character and quality, yet connoisseurs profess to discern a considerable difference between the two. They always commanded a high reputation, and a century ago their rarity caused them to sell for between two and three shillings a-bottle on the spot. Although the vintages of Constantia leave no cloying or unpleasant taint on the palate, and are deservedly esteemed for their surpassing richness, yet, in point of flavour and aroma, they can scarcely compare with the muscadine wines of Languedoc and Roussillon, or the malmseys of Paxarete and Malaga.

Other African wines, as we have seen, on their first importation here were inferior to the produce of the older and better cultivated vineyards of Europe; but in character, body, and flavour they now exhibit a marked improvement, and the awakened intelligence and sedulous attention bestowed by the colonists on this object, promise well for a reputation slowly yet steadily advancing. That the wines are potent and wholesome, is fully established on high analytical authority, and their progress towards a higher grade of character and quality evinced by a large and growing consumption. Since the equalization of the wine duties, however, the increasing imports have sustained a discouraging reverse; but, notwithstanding all attendant disadvantages, Cape wines mixed with other vintages are constantly sold in England under the names of Madeira, Port, and Sherry.



SECTION XIII.

“So come, ye lads, that love Canary,
Let us have a mad fegarie ;
Hether, hether ! hether, hether !
All good fellowes flocke together.”

ARISTIPPUS, *The Jovial Philosopher*.

The Wines of Madeira and the Canary Islands.



MOST of the wine countries which now yield the choicest produce were originally indebted to Greece for their vines. Those of Crete were long sought for in preference to all others ; and where the site proved genial, they seem to have experienced little degeneration in their adoptive soils. At a very early period they found their way into Spain and Portugal, and were thence transplanted to the more northern regions of Europe. One of the first associations which the name of Madeira awakens in the minds of most Englishmen is that of wine,—of a vintage unrivalled for flavour and potency ; so sound, indeed, and strong, that even a voyage round the world, so far from proving inimical, serves only to enhance its richer qualities, and to quicken its advance to ripeness and maturity.

Within a day's sail of the trade-winds, just outside the tropics, a group of volcanic mountain-tops rises precipitously from the Atlantic sea : most of them are small and uninhabited ; the largest among them constitutes the island of Madeira. No man possessing even the faintest appreciation of natural beauty can fail to be deeply impressed by the magnificent scenery concentrated into a compass of some 40 miles by 30. Basaltic rocks, always grand and rugged in outline, are chequered with a luxuriance of vegetation hardly equalled in the world : date-palms,

bananas, dragon-trees, and the prickly pear grow side by side with trees and fruits of our colder latitudes, or at most separated from them by the successive terraces which, as in some vast cathedral, rise step by step, and buttress by buttress, to the central spire of Pico Ruivo, more than 6,000 feet above the sea level. In itself a gigantic greenhouse, facing the south, sheltered on the north by a volcanic wall of enormous height, Madeira enjoys an exceptionally beautiful climate, singularly free from the disadvantages of an all but tropical site. With an atmosphere at all times warm, equable, soothing, and moist, it has for generations past been in high repute as ameliorative of morbid affections of the chest, and its climatic conditions are promotive of undeniable benefit to delicate invalids, and often arrest the progress of that most insidious of diseases, phthisis. The extremes of temperature are here unknown, for spring and autumn reign continuously, and produce flowers and fruit throughout the year. Plants raised in English greenhouses grow wild in the open fields; the boundary hedges are mostly formed of the myrtle, rose, jasmin, and honeysuckle; and the larkspur, fleur-de-lis, lupin, and other flowers spring up spontaneously in the meadows. The island is also celebrated for delicious preserves and sweetmeats, all kinds of fruit being there candied in exquisite perfection.

Madeira was a discovery of the Portuguese in 1418, and was shortly afterwards colonized by Dom Henrique, duke of Viseus, the pioneer of maritime discovery and commerce, surnamed by his countrymen "the Navigator," whose prescient genius first conceived the possibility of penetrating the mysteries of the tempestuous Atlantic,—that vast untravelled marvel of creation, enveloped in mythic terrors, and viewed of yore, by gentle and simple alike, as the utmost limit of navigation, the impassable boundary of the world. This illustrious prince, who was the grandson of John of Gaunt, and the great-grandson of Edward III. of England, initiated a system of social organization; allotments of land were granted to settlers, agriculture was promoted, its infant trade fostered, and to him was due the introduction of the vine, whose grateful product for many generations formed

the great staple and wealth of the island. One of the first colonists was Bartholomew Perestello, father-in-law of the intrepid Columbus, who himself resided at Porto Santo for a time, and on the shores of that speck on the ocean found fragments in the gulf-stream, that indicated to his sagacious mind the existence of a far western continent.

Much uncertainty prevails respecting the precise date when the grape was first planted in Madeira, though many suppose, with considerable probability, that it was supplied with stocks brought directly from Candia. The benignity of the climate and the volcanic soils that there abound were so favourable to their growth, that it was said in its earliest days to have produced more grapes than leaves, and clusters full a span in length,—a single bunch of one dessert grape often weighing twenty pounds. “The hills,” remarks an author of the close of the seventeenth century, “were then covered with vines, and the valleys with ripe grapes, which yielded a fragrant smell. They cultivated the black *pergola* grape, and made several kinds of wine. One, like Champagne, was not much valued ; a second was stronger, with the colour of white wine ; a third was called Malmsey ; and a fourth, Tinto, inferior to Tent in taste, was never drunk by itself, but mingled with other wines, to make them keep.” The Jesuits at one time contrived to hold a monopoly of the Malmsey, of which there was but one good vineyard in the island. The Tinto resembles Burgundy when new, but is said to be softer. When old, it loses its colour and takes that of fine old Madeira, retaining its own scarcely longer than two years. It is very astringent, and thought to be an antidote in cases of dysentery.

The island obtained its name from the first discoverers, who finding it thickly studded with trees, called it Madeira, (*woody*). Set on fire by them on landing, a large portion of the forest was consumed by a conflagration that raged, it is said, for a long time, and thus the way was cleared for the reception of the vine. The sugar-cane, having been transported from Asia to Sicily and the Canary Isles, soon found its way to Madeira, whence it was conveyed to America shortly after the first voyage of

Columbus, and the island became distinguished for producing the best sugar known. For a considerable period this product was the principal commodity which it yielded to commerce; but after the rivalry of the West Indies rendered its culture no longer remunerative, the residents applied their undivided energies to the production of wine. It was not till a much later period that the merits of their vintages became generally known, and acquired the pre-eminence to which their innate excellence justly entitled them. Several varieties are raised, and both quality and flavour are influenced by the peculiarities of site and soil. The north boundary of the island, though sufficiently fertile, being exposed to cold winds and fogs from the sea, is less suitable to vine culture than the southern part, where all the choice plantations are accordingly located. Most of the red grapes are appropriated to the manufacture of white wines; but a portion of them are converted into *tinta*, or red wine, which as long as it retains its colour is sufficiently agreeable, though generally deficient in the high aroma for which the white sorts are distinguished.

The vines are planted in the grounds fronting the houses on lines of trellis-work seven feet high, with the branches conducted over the tops, so as to lie horizontal to the sun's rays. They thus afford a canopy for those who walk under them, yielding a delightful shade in that ardent climate. On the northern side they are mostly trained up chesnut trees, to screen them from the violence of the wind, but some of the plants are supported on frames not more than three feet high. Fruit ripens as high as 2,700 feet of elevation, and wine is made at 2,000: there is one extraordinary kind, about the size of a mussel plum, which is used only as a dessert fruit. On certain rocky grounds open to the full influence of the sun's action, the celebrated Malmsey is grown. As the grapes from which it is obtained require to be over-ripe, or partially shrivelled, they are allowed to hang for about a month later than those used in the manufacture of the dry class. Of this wine there are three sorts, the produce of three varieties of the plant: when of the best kind, it is most fragrant and delicious. One farm is appropriated to the exclu-

sive supply of the royal family of Portugal. The very highest quality Malmsey is raised from a grape that will grow only on one small spot in the south side of the island from "an avalanche of tufa," lodged at the foot of a cliff almost inaccessible. Of this class very little reaches this country. Another much-esteemed sort is the Sercial, said to be the product of the Hock grape transplanted to the island, where it will thrive only on particular spots. When new it is very harsh and austere, and requires to be long kept before it is thoroughly mellowed. It has a full body, a rich and peculiar aromatic flavour, and combines within itself all the requisites of a perfect wine. The quantity made, however, is very small.

Madeira wine must attain age on the island, if not sent to a warmer climate to promote its maturity. The demand for it in the British colonies, to which at one period it was alone exported, first led to a knowledge of the benefit to be derived from its removal to a tropical climate; and since it has come into more general use, it is prepared for particular markets by a voyage to the East or West Indies. Cargoes thus ripened sell for much higher prices than those imported direct from the island; but it does not necessarily follow that the consignments which have made the longest or hottest voyage turn out always the best, for although many choice samples are so obtained, yet no inconsiderable proportion lack their full flavour, and are rendered more liable to acidulous developements. The change, however, which takes place in their character by this system is particularly striking. Perhaps no wines receive so much improvement by exposure to the influence of artificial heat as those in which a large amount of adventitious spirit is infused. When new and perfectly fermented the wines of Madeira retain an objectionable tartness, imparted by the natural tartrates they contain, which somewhat detracts from their universal approval. This characteristic when subjected to the influence of a high temperature or a lengthened Indian voyage disappears by the absorption or deposition of the tartrates, and is sufficiently dispersed to allow of a full developement of their higher and distinctive properties.

The large additional expense attending this mode of im-

proving Madeira wine has occasioned the adoption of various artificial methods to gain its full excellence, through a perfect decomposition of the saccharine and other active principles tending to fermentation: for this purpose both temperature and agitation are necessary. Some imagine the character of the wines to have deteriorated of late years; but the simple truth is, that Madeira, like all other wine-countries, furnishes, along with a few superlative growths, a great many of indifferent quality. Many of the cargoes shipped for the East Indies were purchased on speculation and long credit, or in barter for goods, and often by incompetent judges of wine. England formerly received only a small portion of its choicer produce; but an extensive and increasing demand subsequently led to large importations of secondary sorts, and these, being sold much above their value, necessarily brought the whole into discredit. Although our American and West-India colonies were early and chiefly supplied from Madeira, yet its wines found little favour in this country before the middle of the last century. Spain and Portugal, and the Canaries, still furnished us with the stronger white kinds, and Rhenish came in place of the light vintages of France. Our officers, who had served in the West Indies, and become acquainted with the superior vinous properties of the wines of Madeira, are said, on their return, to have introduced that general preference for them which once so dominantly prevailed in English society. Sir George Staunton estimated the whole annual vintage to average 25,000 pipes of 120 gallons each, including 500 pipes of Malmsey.

Madeira is one of those hardy growths that bear age remarkably well, retaining its qualities unimpaired in both extremes of temperature, and constantly improving with the advance of time. Indeed, these wines can hardly be considered in condition before they have been eight or ten years in the wood, and afterwards allowed to mellow twice that time in bottle. Their flavour and aroma perfect themselves by keeping, and the wine has never yet been drunk too old. When of prime quality and carefully preserved, it loses all its original harshness, and acquires that agreeable pungency, that bitter sweetness so highly prized

in the choicest wines of antiquity,—uniting great strength and richness of flavour with an exceedingly fragrant and diffusible aroma. The soft nutty taste, too, which is often very marked, is inherent in this wine.

The insular state of Madeira, and its favourable geographical position, did not save it from the general devastation caused by the *oidium* blight, which made its appearance there a year earlier than on the Douro, and in a much more virulent form. The attack was not partial, as elsewhere, for in the second year of its sway (1852) it destroyed the entire crop of grapes, and fatally infected the plant itself. The yield had been decreasing, year after year, for a considerable period; but now the vines, with occasional exceptions, were everywhere uprooted, and the few that escaped have seldom produced healthy fruit since. For six years there was little or no vintage at all. The Portuguese government sent a commission for the purpose of investigating the causes of the calamity, but without any satisfactory result, either as to the real source of the disease or as to its remedy, and suggesting no proper mode of treatment, or showing how its destructive course might be checked. The malady presented itself there in the same form as on the Continent, and at the same season, which was soon after the disappearance of the blossom. The application of sublimated sulphur, so efficacious elsewhere, was productive of little benefit, and the only successful expedient used for arresting the progress of the blight in its earlier stages was a careful washing of the whole plant with a solution consisting of one part of glue to sixteen parts of water,—an operation which had been practised with good effect in the royal hot-houses of Sans-souci, in Prussia. The solution very soon dried, leaving on the grapes and leaves a glossy appearance. All so treated continued in a healthy condition, and even those affected by the fungus recovered beneath the crust. Keeping the grape close upon the ground, also, as a protection against the disease, is said to have been successfully pursued in the southern district. Calamitous in its results as this visitation proved, yet, as misfortunes seem never doomed to come alone, it was supplemented in the early portion of the next decade by a

new vine devastator known as the *phylloxera vastatrix*, for which no specific remedy has yet been found. Although hitherto less destructive in its effects on the renovated plantation than its malignant predecessor, its ravages were sufficiently damaging to awaken fresh and disquieting apprehensions of the future in the minds of both growers and merchants.

The pecuniary loss sustained since the first appearance of the *oïdium* is stated, on the authority of Dr. Hermann Schacht, to have amounted in the autumn of 1852 to 1,137,990 Spanish piastres, (190,000*l.*) ; and after waiting in vain through a period of five years for a better state of things, the impoverished proprietors abandoned, as hopeless, the future cultivation of the vine. A traveller who might then have chanced to visit Madeira could have scarcely believed that but a few years previously the greater portion of the island was richly studded with the genial and ever-welcome plant. The cause of its disappearance, however, must not be attributed entirely to the destructive ravages of the blight, but partly, also, to mistrust of future stability, and a growing indifference to its culture in favour of that of other products ; so much so, that of late it was somewhat difficult to procure a sufficient quantity of grapes for invalids when medically prescribed for their ailments. The vineyard has been in a great measure replaced by sugar-plantations, which, annually increasing in extent, contribute, in their turn, not a little to the decay of the vines, as the former require frequent irrigation, and this excess of moisture causes the latter to rot in the humid ground. Notwithstanding these discouraging circumstances, laudable attempts to renovate the failing grape by the introduction of fresh varieties are being made by some of the wealthier growers, who are grafting upon the old stocks the Catawba and Isabella species (both of which are indigenous to the United States), and a successful issue to this experiment may yet avert the early extinction that at one time threatened the island wine-trade : from the nature of the soil and climate, however, none but old vines will produce first-class wines.

An official document of a more recent date aptly illustrates the exterminating power exercised by an inscrutable malady after

its ten years' sway over the decaying vineyards of this famous island. By it we learn that in the year 1809 no less than 15,363 pipes of its wine were exported in British ships. In 1851 the shipments to all countries had dwindled down to 7,000 pipes ; from which year the wine-trade, from the failure of successive vintages, gradually diminished till 1861, when the export for the year reached its minimum of 360 pipes only. With the revival of viticulture since that period production has steadily increased, and the export to all countries, but chiefly to Great Britain, amounted in 1872 to 1760 pipes, with a good prospect of further periodical extension.

The CANARIES, a group of islands seated on the west coast of Africa, have for ages been famed for a rich and fragrant wine of more than usual excellence, which is produced in considerable abundance, the exports amounting to 25,000 pipes annually. The scenery of all these islands is elevated and full of mountains, the slopes of which display a profusion of vegetation.

"The soil," affirms Dr. Dapper, in his *Description de l'Afrique*, "is equally good for every species of vegetation ; but above all else it is famous for that excellent wine of Canary, which finds its way all over the world, and is esteemed so highly. In early times one alone of this island group produced wine and corn ; but now all are fertile in every thing one could desire for the enjoyment of man."

Their volcanic origin admirably adapts them to the cultivation of the vine, which is said to have been first planted there in the reign of Charles V. with roots brought from the banks of the Rhine, the change in the character of the produce being due to the influence of soil and climate. The grape, however, that gives the Malmsey, or Malvasia, was derived from the isle of Candia. The most remarkable, as well as one of the largest of the group, is the isle of Teneriffe.

"Here," continues the indefatigable doctor, "the best vines, such as yield the choicest wine, grow within a league of the surrounding shores. Those planted at a greater distance do not thrive so well, and their product is held in less esteem ; what, however, is still more curious to note is the fact, that if the same plant be transferred to either of the sister group, it will not grow freely, and bears little or no fruit."

As a natural object it is chiefly notable for its lofty peak, of the sloping sides of which the island actually consists. By the rapidity of its rise it presents, within a very short space, every variation of temperature, from the colder climates of the north to those of the tropical circle. Laguna, its capital, is 2,000 feet above the sea, and is cool and agreeable, whilst the port of Santa Cruz below is intensely hot. The declivities and rising hills are covered with vines, and cultivated like a garden. The summit of the peak is the seat of an extinguished volcano, having remained tranquil during many ages, and presenting little or no symptom of renewed eruption. Some heat is still perceptible in a few crevices, which emit aqueous vapours, with a peculiar buzzing noise. In former days arbitrary variation and corruption of terms confused the nomenclature of its vinous produce. As Canary wine it was once much drunk in England, where it was known only by that name, but now very little is imported. It is a luscious sweet white wine; the acid principle predominates as it becomes old, so that it sometimes presents a double taste, both sweet and sour. It is not good as a stomachic, but the flavour is agreeable, and it possesses ample body, ranking, without any obvious cause, second only to Madeira,—possibly the result of careless or unskilful management of the vintage. At Grand Canary both Malmsey and Vidonia are grown; the latter is a dry wine, and derives its name from the *vidogna* grape, or is a corruption of Verdone, a strong wine of a green tinge, but harsher than Teneriffe. It was prepared formerly chiefly for the West-Indian market, where the fervent climate materially aided in mellowing and rapidly developing its better qualities. The Malmsey is very rich and perfect of its kind, and was once much in request. The AZORES, a smaller island-cluster in the same region, produce about five thousand pipes of wine. Nearly the whole of these are grown on the isle of Pico, but their quality never stood very high.

Of the Canary varieties several approach the finer sorts of Madeira in quality, and the produce of Teneriffe often passes under that name. It is derived from the same species of grape and a similar soil; but although the temperature is higher and

more steady, the Teneriffe wine never reaches the full body and rich flavour of the prime growths of Madeira. Formerly a large quantity of sweet wines used to be manufactured here, but more recently the rising preference for the dry kinds has induced the growers to limit their attention almost solely to that class. The Malvasia is not so sweet or strong as Teneriffe, but when about three years old it has the flavour of a rich and ripe pine-apple. It is a wine very difficult of preservation when exported, especially to cold climates, where it often turns sour.

For many years a manifest preference existed for Canary wine, which, writes the royal historiographer Howell, "is accounted the richest, most firm, the best bodied, and lastingest wine, and the most defecated from all earthy grossness of any other whatever. French wines," he continues, "may be said to pickle meat in the stomach ; but this is the wine that digests, and doth not only breed good blood, but it nutritieth also, being a glutinous substantial liquor. Of this wine, if of any other, may be verified that merry induction,—that good wine maketh good blood, good blood causeth good humours, good humours cause good thoughts, good thoughts bring forth good works, good works carry a man to heaven : *ergo*, good wine carrieth a man to heaven."





SECTION XIV.

“The isles of Greece, the isles of Greece !
Where burning Sappho lov'd and sung ;
Where grew the arts of war and peace,
Where Delos rose and Phœbus sprung ;
Eternal summer gilds them yet,
But all except their sun is set.”—*Lord Byron.*

The Wines of Greece and the Western Archipelago.

GONTINENTAL Greece stands in a volcanic zone, which extends from the Caspian sea to the Azores. Although no traces of fiery eruptions are now discernible in this region, history is full of the effects produced there in early ages. The aspect of the country is generally mountainous, the climate propitious. Its serene and cloudless sky formed an untiring theme for classic praise, and the transparent buoyancy of the atmosphere helps to develop and display its various natural products in their highest beauty and perfection. The soil, throughout the greater portion of the whole surface, is highly favourable to the vine, and serves to extensively diversify the character and quality of its botanical wealth, which imparts additional force to the charm and splendour of an idyllian scenery. Hills of calcareous earth, with slopes of happy exposure and volcanic or gravelly strata, offer situations of rare occurrence for vineyards, and nothing is wanting to secure the purest and most delicious produce but a more consistent and skilful treatment of the vintage. In olden times very empirical notions prevailed respecting the proper management and treatment of wine. The grapes were often gathered indiscriminately, and the fermentation as carelessly conducted ; but as the true principles and laws of fermentation are now generally recognised, the improvement discernible in recent vintages tends to a growing conviction that Greece, for

pure and wholesome wines, is destined to be a source of considerable supply for a rapidly developing external commerce.

Of the precise nature and taste incidental to the wines of ancient Greece the moderns are but imperfectly informed, and much in relation to their identity, their quality and flavour, must be left to inference and conjecture. That this refined and enlightened community preferred old wines to new, that they sometimes used them perfumed, that they mixed water with their wines, and that habitual drunkenness was considered infamous, we learn from the gifted authors whose works have been preserved through the darkness of ages ; but the knowledge conveyed by these writings carries us very little farther.

The vine is variously cultivated in different parts of Greece. On the continent the plantations were formerly numerous, and the produce commensurate with their extent. In some places the high method of training over trellises prevails ; in others the plant is not permitted to rise but a little more than a foot from the ground, and is kept closely pruned, a trench or basin being excavated round the principal stem to secure moisture at one season, and at another to save the grapes from contact with the soil while the sun's heat is concentrated within it. At Corinth, where the vine flourishes remarkably well, it is not trained trellis-wise, but the plants are shaped like currant-bushes, and the rich clusters of small pearly grapes hang pendant around them. "The people of Nauplia," Dr. Clarke tells us, "were early renowned for the culture of the vine, and they observed that those trees on which asses browsed were more abundant in their produce. This suggested the art of pruning, and, in consequence of their success, they formerly worshipped an ass's head as an idol." Thessaly is thought to possess the finest climate in Greece, and its various fruits are matured in great beauty and perfection. The vines here are mostly dwarfed. The bunches of fruit are fine and abundant, the berries being unusually large, and of a rich and luscious flavour. Very good wines of both colours are produced in Albania and Roumania as well as in Macedonia, the classic ground of Mount Olympus furnishing the Noussa, a full-bodied generous wine of superior

merit. In the immediate vicinity of Athens, productive vineyards abound, and the vine and the olive contend for the mastery. The extensive plantations of Keffesia on the north-east, and those around Mount Hymettus, still famed for its wealth of bees and superlative honey,* where the busy-winged insects in countless numbers sip the fragrant thyme that clothes the Attic hills during the months of spring, yield red and white wines of a fine and agreeable quality. These vintages when matured by age resemble a *premier crû* Burgundy in taste and character, but, as incidental to their more southerly location, are fuller in body and roundness of flavour. The more prominent merit of these wines is that when young they possess a somewhat acidulous taste, derived from the tartrates naturally evolved in the perfect fermentation they undergo, but which disappear with age in bottle by gradual deposition or absorption. Indeed these tartrates are essential constituents in all vinous products, for without their presence in sufficient abundance neither flavour nor bouquet can be possibly educed.

Napoli di Malvasia, in the Morea, is the original seat of the renowned Malmsey, which has since been imitated in nearly every other wine-country in the world. But long under the paralyzing apathy of Turkish sway, both enterprise and population gradually dwindled, and during the fanatic war of emancipation the neglected plantations were trampled down, burned, or heedlessly uprooted; the most wanton devastation was everywhere committed by the Ottoman soldiery under Ibrahim Pacha, whose barbarous policy—unsparingly carried out over the greater portion of the whole peninsula—was, that every village, every cottage, should be burnt or destroyed, every garden laid waste, every vineyard uprooted, every fruit-tree cut down. The injury inflicted by this exterminating process is one that cannot be easily estimated, and for years afterwards the vinous products of the Morea were shorn of their former abundance and high commercial importance.

* The Athenians of yore believed that all the bees in the world had been propagated from Mount Hymettus. They taught that health might be preserved and life prolonged by the external use of oil, and the internal use of honey.—*Gibbon*.



Although it is generally considered that the numerous isles that besprinkle the Ægean sea owe their origin solely to the action of volcanic forces in the primeval ages of time, yet M. Tournefort, a distinguished member of the French Academy, presents the readers of his *Voyage into the Levant*, anno 1700, with another theory on the subject:—

“The famous epocha relating to the overflowing of the Pontus Euxinus into the Grecian sea, gives us great light into most of the adventures that happened in some of those islands. That epoch at least discovered to us the foundation of many fables that have been published of them, since Diodorus assures us that the inhabitants of the island of Samothrace had not forgot the prodigious change made in the Archipelago by the overflows of Pontus Euxinus, which, of a great lake that it was before, became at last a considerable sea by the concurrence of the many rivers that disgorge into it: these overflows laid the Archipelago under water, destroyed almost all the inhabitants, and reduced those of the highest islands to the necessity of climbing up to the tops of the mountains. How many large islands were then split into divers pieces? if we may use that expression. Was there not reason after this for looking on those islands as a new world, that could not be peopled but in process of time? Is it at all surprising that the historians and poets should publish so many strange adventures that happened there, in proportion as people of courage left the continent to go and view them? Is it any wonder that Pliny, the epitomizer of so many books now lost, should speak of certain changes incredible to those who do not reflect upon what has happened in the universe during so many annals?”

Be this, however, as it may, the fact remains, that invariable commendation of these fertile classic isles may be traced through the earliest historic annals. Situate full south on the borders of the Mediterranean sea, with a dry and sunny atmosphere tempered by its cooling breezes, possessing a congenial volcanic soil, and an exceptional perfection and maturity of the grape, the vintages are abundant, and the wines, high in strength and aroma, still deservedly sustain their pristine excellence and renown. Dr. Oliver Dapper, a diligent Flemish historian, in his *Description Exacte des Îles de l'Archipel*, cites the writings of Herodotus, Diodorus, Pausanias, Thucydides, Strabo, Tacitus, Pliny, Solinus, and other ancient geographers,

in testimony of the pre-eminence of the Grecian Archipelago, and the abundance and excellence of its wines,—a reputation doubtless well founded, since the same natural advantages prevail at the present day.* The air of all these isles he describes as pure and salubrious, and the vegetation as rich in savour and fragrance, and very bountiful. Coins and medals peculiar to each community, and of various denominations, were current in considerable numbers, some of which bore on one side a cluster of grapes in token of their fecundity in the gifts of nature; and there is not a single habitable isle among them without something remarkable appertaining to it of one kind or another.

Of all the wine-producing sections of the Archipelago mentioned in historic annals, CYPRUS was ever regarded as the most eminent as well as the largest of the numerous isles in those waters. It was consecrated by the ancient Greeks to their goddess Venus on account of its great fertility and the vast natural riches it contained, for it was customary with them to dedicate to that divinity every thing which possessed the power of multiplying abundantly. This favoured spot was named Cyprus by all the Greek and Latin writers; but among the Jews it is called *Chetim*, derived, according to Josephus, from Chetimos, son of Javan, who, as the son of Japhet, the third-born of Noah, on the primal division of the earth took first possession of it. It is related of the emperor Selim II. that he conquered Cyprus for the sake of its delicious wines; remarking on that occasion to Mustapha, his generalissimo, "I intend to capture Cyprus, an island which contains a treasure that none but the king of kings ought to possess."

The grapes of Cyprus, for size and luscious sweetness, are said to be unequalled by the vines of any other country; whilst the amplitude of the clusters can be compared only with those brought by the spies from the land of Canaan. Some notion

* "Archipelago is a corruption of *Ægeo-pelago*, the modern Greek pronunciation of *Αιγαιον Πελαγος*, the *Ægean* or holy sea, from which the several names of l'Archipel, the Arches, and Archipelago have been transformed by geographers and seamen."—*D'Anville Géographie Ancienne*. The numerous monks of the Greek Church once resident in all these islands and the adjacent mountain of Athos (*monte santo*), might justify the epithet of holy.

may be formed of its profuse powers of vegetation from a fact registered by the vigilant pen of Pliny, that "even at the present day we ascend to the roof of the temple of Diana of Ephesus by stairs constructed of a single vine that was brought from Cyprus, where the vines often attain to a remarkable size." The wine obtained from the fruit is bland, odorous, and delicious to the taste ; it is also esteemed as being particularly efficacious in strengthening a debilitated stomach, and aiding the functions of an impaired digestion. Well might Plato say, that "of all God's gifts to mankind, wine is the most essential and valuable. It is the safest and best remedy in very many disorders ; it strengthens the body, it animates the young, and is the staff and comfort of old age." The poets and philosophers of his day delighted in singing the praises of good wines, which the physicians of those times effectually dispensed. But our modern medical men, deprived for generations past of all access to unsophisticated wine, in deference to old notions or prejudices seldom prescribe it, and put their faith in drugs, the continued use of which soon weakens the vital powers, and thus many are allowed to languish whom a sound natural beverage might have restored to health.

Cyprus, generally understood to be a wine of the Commandery, is obtained from a red species of grape, and assumes at first a bright amber hue, which with age passes into a dull brown colour. As soon as made, it is put into large cone-shaped vessels of baked clay, lined with pitch or tar, imparting to it when young an unpleasant bitter taste, which after a time is converted into a smooth nutty flavour, and a balsamic property highly salutary for valetudinarians when taken in moderation. The art of making these vessels is very ancient, even to the remotest ages. They hold from twelve to twenty barrels each, and are either simply coated with pitch, or painted internally as they leave the potter's furnace with a boiling liquid composed of turpentine and pitch, mixed with vine-ashes, goats' hair, and fine sand, which never peels off, and effectually closes the pores of the earthen vase. The wine is afterwards stored in casks, and finally removed for sale in jars, each jar containing five Florence bottles.

The island of CRETE, somewhat improperly called CANDIA by the Venetians, from the name of its principal city, acquired early renown for the quantity and excellence of the wine grown there. The Pythian oracle of Delphic Apollo, it is written, first taught the natives its use, and the method of preparing it. Martial, and other classic writers, make mention of a luscious wine of this isle known as *Passum*, obtained from half-dried grapes of the apian or muscat kind ; and to this day its best and most valued product is the delicious Malvasia, which Diodorus informs us was called Pramnian wine. The like term is used by Homer, (*οἶνος Πράμνιος*, *Il. λ. 638*), and should be understood as referring to the same vintage.

"This Malvasia wine," notes Fredrika Bremer in her charming narrative of a recent Eastern tour, "is an earthly nectar."—"The island of Crete," further writes one who visited it before it had become desolate by a hapless revolt, "is indeed the garden of Greece ; and were it thoroughly civilized and cultivated, would produce in vast abundance corn, wine, oil, silk, wool, honey, and wax. The land is stocked with game, the sea with fine fish ; fruit is plentiful, and of a delicious flavour ; its valleys are adorned with a variety of flowers, vines, and aromatic shrubs, and with groves of myrtle, orange, lemon, pomegranate, and almond trees, as well as with interminable forests of the finest olives."

When under Venetian rule, Crete and Cyprus supplied the whole of Europe with their finest dessert wines ; and so abundant was the vintage, that the former island alone is said to have exported no less than 200,000 casks of Malmsey annually. It still produces wines, both red and white, of superior character and quality, as well as two or three very good muscats ; but as the latter do not bear sea-carriage well, they are little known beyond the mouth of its own narrow strait. The principal wine-makers at the dawn of civilization were the monks. At the monastery of Arcadi fine and noble cellars are shown, where the produce of the vintage was formerly stored. The wine of that locality is a rich Malmsey. The Jews, also, make a tolerable muscadine ; it is pleasanter to the palate than Tent, and is sold very cheap. The wine-bibbers of Candia were once so notorious, that a party of them would gather round a good-sized

cask, and not rise from their potations until it was emptied ; and Herodotus, when speaking of the river Araxes, tells us that—

“In it are many islands, nearly equal in size to Lesbos, which bear vines that produce fruit of a peculiar kind. This fruit the inhabitants, when they meet together and have lit a fire, throw on the flames as they sit round in a circle, and by inhaling the fumes of the burning fruit they become intoxicated by the odour, just as the Greeks do by wine. The more fruit there is consumed, the more intoxicated they become, until they rise up to dance and betake themselves to singing.”

“The wines here,” remarks Tournefort, “are exquisite,—red, white, and claret. No wonder we see medals of the remotest antiquity struck on account of the Cretans, the reverse whereof represent garlands of ivy interwoven with bunches of grapes. The wines of this climate have just tartness enough to qualify their lusciousness : this lusciousness, far from being fulsome, is attended with that delicious balm which, in those who have once tasted them, begets a contempt for all other wine whatever. Jupiter never drank any other nectar when he reigned king of this island. Though these wines are full of fire, yet Galen met with a sort in this place temperate enough to be given in a fever. The Turks can’t forbear this tempting juice,—at least in the night-time ; and when they get to a tub of it, they make clean work. The Greeks drink it night and day, without water and in small draughts, happy that they can thus bury the remembrance of their misery. When water is poured on those wines, the glass looks as if it were full of clouds, shot through with fluctuating curling threads, occasioned by the great quantity of ethereal oil which predominates in this divine liquor. An excellent spirit might easily be drawn off it ; and yet nothing is more detestable than the brandy of this country and throughout the Levant. The mighty mountain of Ida covers, almost, the middle of the island ; yet it has nothing of note but its name, so renowned in ancient history. This celebrated mount exhibits nothing but a huge, overgrown, ugly, sharp-raised, bald-pated eminence, and the praises bestowed on it seem to be strained, or at least are now past their season. . . .

“The island of Crete is further remarkable for a natural labyrinth of an extraordinary formation and extensive dimensions. This famous place is a subterraneous passage in manner of a street, which by a thousand intricacies and windings, as it were by mere chance, and without the least regularity, pervade the whole cavity or inside of a little hill at the foot of Mount Ida. If a man strikes into any other path, after he has gone a good way, he is bewildered among a thousand twistings,

twinnings, sinuosities, crinkle-crankles, and turn-again lanes, that he can scarce ever get out again without the utmost danger of being lost."

CHIOS, now called SCIO, is also justly regarded as one of the finest and most agreeable islands of the western group. It is situate in the Icarian sea, and its vinous products, the red as well as the white, were highly prized by the Latins and Greeks. Pliny praises emphatically the luscious Chian wine, and Strabo pronounced it the best in all Greece. Homer, on account of its fecundity in all sorts of fruit and grain, gave Chios the surname of *Fertile* preferably over all others. The inhabitants claim for it the honour of giving birth to that great man, and believe that the excellent wines grown there once belonged to him. They further maintain that in the latter part of his life the immortal bard established a school at Chios, and still glory in showing to travellers the seats where the venerable master and his docile pupils sat in the hollow of a rock, at the distance of about four miles from the modern capital of the island. Medals were struck, sacrifices offered, and festivals celebrated in his honour, every fifth year. Much uncertainty still prevails as to the place of Homer's nativity, from the doubts and difficulties attendant on rival pretensions. No less than seven illustrious cities disputed the honour of having given birth to the earliest and greatest of poets, as well vouched for in these words:—

"Smyrna, Chios, Colophon, Salamis, Rhodos, Argos, Athenæ,
Orbis de patriâ certat, Homere, tuâ."

Chios enjoys a further renown from the circumstance of its being the native seat of the Mastica plant, which yields the valuable gum of that name, and where it continues to flourish in all its pristine vigour. It is not a little singular, however, that although its culture is conducted with ease and facility, it can be made to grow only in one favoured portion of the isle; the roots *will* choose their own soil, and no art or labour can succeed in extending the limits of reproduction beyond the barrier apparently circumscribed by nature itself. During the months of May and June narrow incisions are made in the bark, from which a translucent white gum, odorous and friable, is slowly exuded. This product is held in high estimation by the Turks, and the sultan was wont to send annually a number of his own

gardeners to superintend the careful collection of the crop, and to prevent under severe penalties, even to the forfeiture of life, any pillage or appropriation by the native Greeks. Fifty cases were usually set apart for the exclusive use of the seraglio, where portions were kneaded with the bread, as corrective and wholesome for the stomach. The ladies of the harem chewed it incessantly to remove impurities from the mouth and gums, as well as to preserve the teeth clean and pearly white.

A higher position, however, was in reserve for the medicinal properties of the mastica gum, for it now takes rank as the chief ingredient of a cordial tonic in high repute throughout the East, and known by the name of *Chio Mastica Raki*. By a peculiar process in the distillation of a native spirit called *raki*, the more essential particles of the gum are volatilized and thoroughly incorporated with the nascent spirit, and hence the name. The liqueur is said to be wondrously invigorating and appetizing, and further imbued with other intrinsic sanitary virtues: this may well be, seeing that the healing qualities of the plant have been acknowledged from the earliest times, and an amusing incident, contemporaneous with the Crimean war, bears tacit evidence of its wide-spread reputation for other remedial virtues:—

“We found our Polish colonel of Turkish cavalry lying in bed, with his face to the wall and his back to the world, anathematizing all around him, and huddling himself up in the bed-clothes with the air of a man who is going to die, and won’t be hindered. Then he would turn to the front, gaze around him with a dim, restless look of pain, drop on his pillow with a grunt, collect his faculties, drink a little *raki*; then a little more, then a great deal, and finally would feel a little better, and become mildly resigned, and even facetious. I really believe the old gentleman was seriously ill, and this, apparently, was the *only medical treatment* he ever obtained. In his calmer moods he was fond of expounding to us his sensations with reference to his frequent drams of *raki*:—‘*Le premier est très-mauvais*,’ said he, putting on a doleful face of seeming dislike; ‘*le second est un peu mieux*; et après cela,’ (and here his countenance breaks out into irrepressible radiance,) ‘*ça va comme des traîneaux!*’ The only part of his statement which I ever felt inclined to doubt was the first clause.”—*The Turks in Kalafat*, 1854.

The learned Theophrastus, a pupil both of Plato and Aristotle, and Dioscorides, physician to Antony and Cleopatra, concur in naming the gum as deservedly famous in their day ; and being accounted a specific for many ailments, and especially those of the chest, there can be little doubt that this resinous concretion was extensively employed in the early practice of physic. To restore the appetite, to aid a weak digestion, to prevent nausea and fortify the stomach ; to allay an obstinate cough, promote facile expectoration, and check the spitting of blood ; as a cure for eruptions and diseases of the skin, for soreness of the tongue and gums, and as an external remedy for acute tooth-ache, are among its reputed merits. Used as a masticatory it serves to correct a tainted breath, and to relieve pressure on the brain, arising from the watery secretions of the mucous membrane usually accompanying severe colds. An astringent juice, drawn from the root, bark, and leaves, was also successfully employed in dysentery, for abscess or internal hæmorrhage, and as an emollient for fractured limbs. In its application to the arts, the value and utility of gum mastic are well known.

SAMOS, also a large and fertile island, situate in the sea of Ionia, is divided only by a narrow strait from the mainland of Asia Minor. It is famous as being the birth-place of Pythagoras, and still more so as the seat of the renowned Samian pottery. It contains a double range of lofty mountains, some of which are covered with umbrageous woods, and present the most beautiful scenery. Although it ranked high in classic times for the abundance and rare excellence of its fruits, the wine was considered by the ancients to be inferior to several others. This island is still remarkable for its great fecundity : the exports of grapes, raisins, and wine are very considerable, and it is reckoned the richest island in the Levant. It is noted in the present day for excellent muscat : large quantities, both red and white, are raised, and Samian wine still ranks high in general estimation.

Most of the minor islands furnish some variety of wine more or less in repute. Ancient COS, or CEOS, but now called ZEA, is very productive, and in primitive times supplied the same

good quality it yields at present. From this early character for excellence some imagine it to have derived its name, since the three letters of the word Cos are held to signify three principal requisites; viz. colour, odour, and savour, properties which, according to the sage dictum of the school of Salerno, mark the character of all good wine: "*Vina probantur odore, sapore, colore,*" etc. This island was the birth-place of Hippocrates, Apelles, and Simonides, the eminent poet, who, according to some, added four new letters to the alphabet of the Greeks.

The isle of PATMOS is held in reverence among Christians on account of its having been the place of exile of the Apostle John, when suffering in the persecution of the emperor Domitian for bearing witness to the word of God as it is in Jesus, A.D. 95. On the year next following, the tyrant met his death from the hand of an assassin, when the senate annulled his decrees, and the Evangelist returned to Ephesus in 97, after a banishment that lasted but eighteen months. The natives, however, claim a residence among them of at least seven years, whilst many extend his stay to fifteen; and it may be that here he was favoured with the divine visions and revelations related in the Apocalypse. The islanders even assert, on the authority of an ancient tradition, handed down from father to son and never controverted, that St. John wrote the book of Revelation in a secluded cavern, known as the "holy Grotto." This recess forms a spacious chamber about seven feet in height, and is seated at a considerable elevation in a rock near the sea, accessible by a single pathway, rugged and irksome to ascend. The grotto is preserved with religious care, and the priestly attendants point to an orifice in the upper portion of the wall as the place where the holy exile rested his head on listening to the Voice addressed to him from heaven. A fissure in the opposite side, rent by the Voice on entering the cavern, is said to be the aperture through which he beheld the visions and revelations recorded in the sacred volume. This is the only incident that makes Patmos worthy of special mention, for the isle itself is diminutive in size, bleak and unsheltered; without forest or grove, it is little better than a bare rock.

The isle of RHODES, high in chivalric fame, obtained honourable mention in very early times for the goodness of its vinous products. They are nearly all of the sweet and luscious class. Both Galen and Pliny speak of them approvingly, as being equally excellent with the wines of Cos, and highly prized for their bland and dulcet fragrance. Nor is the praise of Virgil wanting to the juice of the Rhodian grape, since at the banquets of the gods he assigns it a distinguished place at the dessert, or second course, of the celestial feast :—

“The Rhodian, sacred to the solemn day,
In second services is pour'd to Jove,
And best accepted by the gods above.”—*Georgics*, b. ii.

One species of grape grown on this island is as large as a damascene plum, and very similar in colour. The sun there is sufficiently powerful to maintain the vines in bearing every month in the year, and if watered judiciously, both ripe and incipient fruit appear on the same plant at the same time. TENEDOS is situated at a short distance from the Dardanelles, and although its appearance is diminutive, rocky, and barren, it has the reputation of producing red wines of a very superior character. Both dry and sweet varieties are grown there, and are exported largely.

The vinous treasures of the memorable isle of NAXOS, now NAXIA, are often mentioned by early bards and other writers, who likened them to celestial nectar. According to Diodorus, it was the gift of fertility to the isle in wines of so much excellence that manifested the love and affection borne towards its inhabitants by the divine Bacchus, and caused it to be especially consecrated to his honour. A mythic legend, which still lingers as truth among the people of Hellenic descent, thus idealizes the birth of the first vine-root :—

“When Bacchus was yet a boy, he had to travel through Greece on his way to Naxos; but as the journey was long and wearisome he became tired, and sat down on a way-side stone to rest. As he musingly lingered there with his eyes on the ground, he saw a tiny leaflet spring up at his feet so attractive and charming, that he resolved to take it with him, and replant it at Naxos. So he pulled it up, and carried it away; but as the sun shone out with great power, he feared it would wither before he reached his destination. Chancing now to perceive

the bleached skeleton of a dead bird, he placed the tender root within its bars, and continued his journey. But in his divine hand the conscious plant sprouted so vigorously, that it soon protruded through its barrier of dry bones, both above and below. Fresh fears for its safety arose, and the perplexed bearer cast about for a further device. He then came upon the stouter bone of a lion, into a convenient hollow of which he thrust the bones of the bird containing the captive plant. Before long, however, it again outgrew its prison couch, and covered the bone of the lion also with its slender roots. A new surprise for its master, but seizing the bone of an ass opportunely at hand, he placed within it the little plant under the bones of the bird and the lion, and proceeded on his way to Naxos. But when about to plant it, he found that its thready fibres had twined themselves firmly round the bones of the bird, the lion, and the ass, and he could not remove it without damaging the roots. He therefore planted the whole, just as it was, and promptly a vine sprang up on high, and, to his great delight, soon ripened the richest of grapes: from these he prepared the first wine known, and gave it to men to drink. What a marvel did he then behold! When men drank of it, at first they sang like birds; when they took more of it, they became strong as lions; and when they drank deeper still, they became dull and stupid as an ass."

Naxos is now chiefly remarkable for its temple to this the supreme deity of the pagan natives, who were notorious for their gross and habitual intemperance. The only memory of Ariadne to be found in the island is a marble fountain, erected in the town of Naxia, and called after her name.

"Naxos is one of the most agreeable islands in the whole Archipelago, and the inhabitants drink excellent wine to this day. The whole surface is covered with orange, olive, lemon, cedar, citron, pomegranate, fig, and mulberry trees; and the antients were not in the wrong when they called it 'Little Sicily.'"—(*M. Tournefort*.) "The scenery of this lovely spot," remarks a yet more recent tourist, "with its balmy air and cloudless sky, is vivid and picturesque. The valley of Melanés is an earthly paradise. Vines clamber up into the lofty olive-trees, and fall down again in light green festoons heavy with grapes, which wave in the wind. Slender cypresses rise up from amidst brightly verdant groves of orange, fig, pomegranate, plum, and peach trees. Tall mulberry-trees, umbrageous plants, and ash-trees glance down upon thickets and hedges of blossoming myrtles, oleanders, and the agnus cactus." Nor, in the view of the same author, is the valley of Potamia less deserving of admiration.

“ You cross a stony mountain-ridge, then descend a ravine by different steps cut in the marble rock. This flight of steps inclines to the right between the rocks, and here we are all at once arrested, astonished, struck, —nay, enchanted ; for the scene, which on the turn of the path suddenly reveals itself to our glance, is as magnificent as it is peacefully beautiful. A vast circuit of swelling, billowy foliage lies like an immense lake within an enclosure of mountains, with sunlit slopes and hills scattered with white villas, villages, and Venetian towers.”

LESBOS was reckoned by ancient geographers as one of the principal islands of the Mediterranean sea. It is now called Mitylene, after the name of its principal town. Lesbos held a high position in very remote history, and was long renowned for its vines, olives, and myrtles, for its historic associations with the golden age of Grecian intellect, no less than for the many illustrious persons to whom it had given birth. The poets Alcæus and Sappho, Arion and Terpander were natives of the place. The waters of the Archipelago, it is well known, are visited occasionally by storms and tempests of extreme violence. On the approach of the vernal equinox in 1866, the whole coast of Asia Minor, from Smyrna to the Dardanelles, was assailed by a succession of volcanic phenomena, which culminated with destructive fury on the isle of Lesbos. More than 1,000 persons perished in helpless terror, and a still greater number were seriously wounded and disabled, the scarcity of food and assistance intensifying the general calamity.

The wines of Lesbos were ranked by Pisistratus the physician, as Pliny alleges, next to those of Chios and Thasos, whilst Athenæus compares them to ambrosia ; Virgil, too, it may be added, mentions with praise the rich and graceful vines of Methymna, and the excellence of their grateful products. They retain their ancient character to this day, and realize a high price in Constantinople. The growths of the island of TENEDOS also find their way to the Turkish capital, where they are held in much estimation. These wines are rich and generous, and retain their flavour long after the colour has passed away. The soil of Tenedos is bare and ungenial towards the sea, but fertile inland ; near to its north-eastern point rises a remarkable peak

called Mount Toro. LEMNOS, TENOS, THASOS, and LAMP-SACUS also yielded wines of considerable worth in very early times, and the numerous coins and medallic emblems of the several islands still extant display heads of Bacchus and Silenus, or else ivy-leaves, amphoræ, grapes, or panthers, allusive of their genial and fruitful clime. Of the isle of ANDROS Pliny writes, "At the temple of Father Bacchus, we are assured by Mucianus, who was thrice consul, there is a spring which in the nones of January always has the flavour of wine."—(b. ii.)

Conspicuous, however, among the Cycladean group must ever stand the isle of SANTORIN, and whether regarded for its vine-loving soil, or for the fearful convulsions to which in past times it has been exposed, it calls for something more than a mere passing notice. Hitherto but little known and less cared for by European geographers, it has yet played no inconsiderable part in the development of the occult and sublime operations of nature, respecting which a few particulars can hardly fail to awaken interest in every reflective mind, for the island is rich in the history of its catastrophes. At different periods no less than six or seven principal cities have been engulfed or laid in ruins, in whole or in part. The first on record was that of Eleusis, swallowed up in the waves at the south end of the isle; the second and third, both erected at different periods on the same site, were levelled on the plain of Perissa; the fourth, Thera, was destroyed by an earthquake on mount St. Etienne; the fifth, probably Œa, was half submerged, half overturned, at Kamari: a new convulsion subverted the sixth town at Cape Kouloumbo; and at the extreme northern point of Therasia a seventh was razed, and partly buried in the neighbouring sands, —to say nothing of others that may have disappeared without leaving behind a single trace of their previous existence; for who shall set bounds to the insatiable gluttony of a volcano portentous as that at Santorin!

Considered only in relation to its actual dimensions, it would scarcely be deemed worthy of special mention; but, apart from other weighty reasons, the island, although but small, for its fer-

tility of soil and valued products, for an active and successful culture of the vine, for its industry and nascent commerce, merits to be regarded as one of the most estimable and attractive in the whole Archipelago ; whilst the beauty of its appearance, the mildness and salubrity of the climate, and the amenity of the inhabitants combine to render it one of the most agreeable residences in the Mediterranean. Herodotus, the most ancient of the profane historians still extant, records the period and mode in which it was first colonized : he tells us that the island was divided into seven cantons, yet omits all mention of the occupants, their numbers, or their chief towns, of which the names of three only have reliably come down to us ; viz. Thera, Eleusis, and Œa. To subsequent writers, and to its own ancient monuments and richly sculptured remains, we are chiefly indebted for what else we know concerning its early history. Before the island was first tenanted it had been the object of repeated volcanic action, owing its origin to a sudden eruption, that cast it up from the innermost depths of the sea. The position and aspect of the stratification, the quality and colour of the materials of which the island is composed in nearly all its breadth and depth, internally as well as externally, from its hidden base in the ocean to the summit of its loftiest mountains,—all testify clearly that it drew its existence from the exercise of giant subterranean forces, which the positive traces of potency and havoc on every part place beyond the possibility of doubt. Assuming the form of a lofty hill, it endured for ages in fertile beauty. Then came a day when suddenly the hill-top sank in amid smoke and flames, and the central ground subsiding, it was transformed into a huge basin, with steep and frowning walls on every side.

Santorin is the chief centre of volcanic action in the eastern Mediterranean, and its fires, still in activity, have been kindled recurrently for upwards of twenty-one centuries. By this last devolution it is said to have taken the semblance of a horse-shoe in shape ; but a crescent with its two points elongated would be a more correct description. The shores round the inner curve form the most frightful precipitous cliffs that can be conceived, of the colour of iron dross, and varying in height from 800 to

1,200 feet. It is along the edges of these precipices that the principal towns on the island are built, from whence the richly verdant ground is dotted with innumerable vineyards. The islets of Therasia and Aspronisi,—surviving fragments of Calliste, engulfed by volcanic action B.C. 236,—nearly complete the western edge of the crater. The isles, and the three entrances formed by them, enclose a circular space about eighteen miles in circumference, the distance round the outer curve forming a total coast line of thirty miles. From the vast depth and shape of this gigantic bowl, now filled by ocean waters, it was long considered unfathomable ; but the successful labours of a recent Admiralty survey have dissipated this erroneous notion, the soundings then taken between the highest shores testing a bottom of reddish clay at a depth of 213 fathoms. The space across the gulf is about four miles, and the sides being nearly perpendicular, the crater, if empty, would present the appearance of a frightful abyss 2,449 feet deep. No part of the island measures more than three miles in width, and in some spots it is less than one. In the southern range, and where the land is broadest, a mountain of limestone and schist, 1,887 feet high, formed originally the nucleus of the island ; the rest, with the smaller isles, composed entirely of volcanic materials—iron, pumice-stone, lava, pozzolana, &c. were ejected by similar powerful convulsions of a remote era, the entire group being but the remnants of a single volcanic cone.

“On approaching its shores from the sea,” writes an observant eyewitness, “Santorin presents an extremely singular appearance. Its immense crater, opening like a lofty, broken stone-ring, discloses a perpendicular, semi-circular, graduated wall, with its many-striped strata or layers of earth,—yellow, red, white, grey, violet, and some other colours. Altogether it looks more like a picture in a geological treatise than a real cliff ; and even Alum Bay (Isle of Wight), with its varied bands of colour, is nothing in comparison with the bay of Santorin. Imagine, then, if you can, a huge crater, larger than any you might have hitherto fancied to be possible, bounded by perpendicular sides nine hundred feet high, and resting on the verge of a basin of the sea, which flows in through two openings in its walls,—one on the north, and the other westward ; imagine to yourself, peering out from the edge

of this giant-cauldron many miles in circumference, four or five white towns and villages, many of the houses nestling among the cliffs, accessible only by steps cut in the rocks, and peering at each other as if afraid of losing their balance and tumbling all together into the sea ; imagine that you can discern within the circle a mass of black lava rock, a little isle in the centre of the island, with phantom-like ships anchored close to the beetling cliffs, and you may then conceive how strange and dismal it must seem as you sail into its repulsive boundary, feeling yourself as puny and helpless as a fly in the jaws of a slumbering beast of prey,—how uncomfortable to be moored fast to its threatening walls, and how dangerous to clamber along the rocky steep, where a number of huge boulders, detached from the overhanging rock, give you friendly warning of the fate which has befallen many a previous wanderer, and which at any moment may be your own ! But the painful task once accomplished, the sudden relief from flurry and nervous irritability, the fresh air, the golden sunshine, the glorious opening prospect, the verdant fields and vineyards rich with clustering fruit,—all this is not easy to describe, but could it be pictured in the mind, some idea of Santorin would be realized."

In the time of the Greeks and Romans the island bore the name of Thera, and the circumstances that place its volcano prominent amid the most powerful and remarkable known, are not only that by its nature and position it unites all the attributes incidental to every other, but as possessing some properties peculiar to itself, which merit the consideration of inquiring and philosophic minds. Indeed, its repeated disintegrations, the history of the Titanic upheavings it has survived, the singularity of the sporadic isles from time to time cast up around it, the nature, the form, and the quality of the territory, the dark and frowning cliffs, the ruin or disappearance of its more ancient towns, the mineral exhalations that continually ascend from the surrounding waters, its numerous antiquarian fragments,—all are objects marvellous in themselves, well calculated to arrest attention, and to awaken the slumbering indifference of minds even the most estranged from scientific studies or pursuits. It will be matter of little surprise, therefore, to hear that the curious and learned from all countries are its occasional visitors, who come to view, to investigate, and to satisfy the spirit of inquiry. M, le

Père Autry, an enlightened missionary priest and experienced traveller, has placed on record the impression made on his mind by the aspect of Santorin in these emphatic terms:—

“The island contains many things so astonishing, and rarities so surprising, that after having journeyed through all France, Italy, and Greece, a part of Anatolia and Syria; after having seen the finest isles of the Levant, Cyprus, Rhodes, Malta, Chios, Mitylene, Naxos, Paros, Milo, &c., I view with astonishment and admiration the frowning grandeur of its rocks, its dry and serene atmosphere, the deep and cavernous mountains, the vines thriving in a parched soil, the fields fertile without manure, and deriving neither moisture from the clouds of heaven nor irrigation from the hand of man. Surprised at what is here to be seen, the island deserves to be visited, for in all my lengthened travels I have never encountered any thing to equal it.”

But the authority that most commends itself to our respect and credence centres in the testimony of the Abbé Pègues, who resided at Santorin for more than twenty years, and to whose deep research and intelligent labours* we are indebted for many interesting revelations respecting an island which, in the opinion of that author, was destined—perhaps at no distant period—to be the scene of similar fortuitous devolutions. His account of these preternatural occurrences and their momentous results is graphic and forcible, and the following animated passage will be perused with interest:—

“Of all the volcanoes that exist on the face of the globe, none perhaps have been productive of phenomena so extraordinary, so appalling, or so varied as those of which the little isle of Santorin has been the frequent scene. Upheaved in one mass by volcanic force from ocean’s unknown depths, again and again augmented by successive eruptions the most formidable the mind can conceive, and constantly contending for the mastery with submarine fires, which explode afresh after intervals of a thousand years, this isle has been transformed in every sense, and many times changed in appearance and grandeur. On the recurrence of these stupendous movements new islands sprung up, some shortly to disappear, others still retaining the indelible marks—even the heat one had almost said—of their terrible origin. Ever tremu-

* *Histoire et Phénomènes du Volcan et des Îles Volcaniques de Santorin*; par M. l’Abbé Pègues, ancien Missionnaire Apostolique dans le Levant, et Supérieur de la Mission de Santorin.

lous, and seemingly poised by Almighty power on an unstable base, it appeared at times ready to sink below a precarious foundation, or to cast itself headlong beneath a yawning abyss. The scoræ and dross then emitted by the burning volcano, the earthquakes it occasioned, the islets it submerged, struck awe and desolation to the hearts of the inhabitants, bewildered with fright and alarm for their safety. Such is this extraordinary island : it is indeed, so to say, the classical land of volcanoes, where the sublime of admiration is linked with the sublime of terror ; where the most astonishing phenomena of our planet are manifest under every repulsive form ; where the intense action of subterranean fires has exercised all its mighty powers ; and it is hard to believe that nature has anywhere ever displayed itself in more prodigious efforts, or with results more majestic or astounding. The jagged cliffs that border the gulf on all sides, the forbidding aspect of the amorphous rocks, lofty, disordered, and riven in sharp, abrupt peaks, present a scene so sad, wild, and fearful as to disconcert the eye of the spectator when looked upon for the first time. Contemplated altogether, and in their full outline, they resemble a vast amphitheatre lined with grassy banks and knolls, as if expressly formed to assist at these tragic representations. Flanked at certain points by mountains black and flame-scorched, they seem from on high thus to admonish the inquisitive mind that scans them : ‘ Here have happened mighty things ; here was the theatre of catastrophes, profound in their incidents : see, admire, and tremble ! ’ Such is the grave impression they make, the awe they inspire. It is the very climax of ruin and desolation.”

It is interesting thus to trace, in the very cradle of history, the same physical occurrences which are amongst the most astonishing of all known upon the earth’s surface in this modern world of civilized man. The eruption that first disclosed the seat of a powerful volcano worked a sterling benefit as well as a surpassing wonder, since it was productive of an island impressive and charming enough to deserve the appellation of Calliste (*the beautiful*), which could never have been applicable had it always retained its present conformation. But unstable at its base, in the maturity of time it was on the verge of a fresh disruption as momentous as any recorded in history ; for again the elements of violence and subversion are seething in its entrails, destined soon to engulf in the watery waste the larger portion of the now lovely isle. Silent after the first outburst for a long

series of years, the volcano had lost its terrors if its existence even was no longer a source of alarm, and much less possible was it to harbour a lingering suspicion of the terrible forces elaborating anew in its bosom. At an hour so still and serene that all nature seemed slumbering in security and repose, the sudden submergence in the surrounding deep of a moiety of their little world was the first intimation to the scared residents of a fresh and destructive calamity. Strabo bears testimony to the reality of these violent Plutonic manifestations when he says,—

“A large array of facts, connected with the changes and prodigies occasioned by various natural phenomena placed at once before the eye, would serve to allay our astonishment ; while that which is uncommon startles our perception, and manifests our general ignorance concerning such occurrences. For instance, supposing any one should narrate the circumstances concerning Thera and the Therasian islands, for midway between them flames rushed forth from the sea for four days, causing the whole of it to boil and be all on fire ; and, after a little, an island twelve stadia in circumference, composed of the burning mass, was thrown up as if by machinery. After the cessation of this phenomenon the Rhodians, then masters of the sea, were the first who dared to approach to the place, and they built on the island a temple to the Asphalian Neptune.”—(b. i. c. 3.)

The actual portentous manifestations that preceded or accompanied this disastrous convulsion can never be precisely known ; but the immediate result was the dismemberment of the primitive island into three distinct parts, and the formation of a vast and fathomless gulf in its place. The dissevered portions were then called—1. Thera, which, as by far the largest, inherited its former name ; 2. Therasia, as diminutive in size ; 3. Aspronisi, which is little more than a rocky shoal. The largest of the three now constitutes the modern Santorin, one of the wealthiest and most populous islands of the lesser Cyclades, and shortly after this fearful catastrophe it was noticed that the vegetable mould, impregnated with the dust of subterranean fires, produced richer vintages and choicer wines than it had ever done before. About two centuries ago Santorin was once more the seat of a further igneous explosion, when more than 750 persons perished miserably ; whilst the fumes of the fire and sulphur affected so

powerfully those who happily escaped, that they soon became dingy as blackamoors. Myriads of ignited substances rose like rockets high in the air, and fell in showers of molten stars. The vapour and smoke issuing from the bottom of the abyss diffused itself so forcibly on every side, that its influence was felt even in distant Constantinople, where all articles of silver suddenly blushed with a tarnished hue. The noise and the crash were heard as far off as Smyrna, and the sea all the way to Alexandria was thickly strewed with the ejected cinders and dust that floated on its surface. These were the scoriæ and pumice stones which, thrown to a great height, were scattered in their descent in every direction, and covered the whole island with a shroud of pumice-stone 20 or 30 yards deep. The mount of Elias itself was buried under the shower, cindery lava being to this day found on its topmost peak.*

Thera, originally named Calliste, as already observed, on account of its singular beauty, was peopled by two different nations at distant intervals, both dating back to the highest antiquity, and to those mythical ages where we find the truth of history so involved and obscured by delusive fables of pagan origin. The legend of the Argonauts is one of the earliest of those lays of foreign adventure sure to awaken sympathies, and inspire a seafaring Hellenic race with heroic songs of war and the turmoil of battle.

"The premier colony," records Herodotus, "came from Phœnicia under the lead of Cadmus, son of king Agenor, about the year 2600, and concurrent with the period when the children of Israel quitted the desert to enter the promised land of Canaan. This prince, on crossing the seas in search of his sister Europa, after her abduction by Jupiter, landed on the isle, and charmed with the beauty of the spot, or urged possibly by the spirit of ambition which the occasion may have prompted, he at once resolved to occupy it, and establish there a sove-

* "Mais les deux plus mémorables éruptions du temps moderne sont celles de 1650 et de 1707. Le 23 Mai, 1707, un nouveau cratère s'ouvrant soudain sous la mer, se mit pendant un an à vomir sans relâche des torrents de fumée, de flammes, de cendres, de pierres rouges, qui retombaient dans la mer à plus d'une demi-lieue de là. L'île entière de Santorin chancelait dans ses fondements; la terre tremblait avec d'affrayantes détonations; la mer était furieuse; c'était une scène de la fin du monde: on mourait de frayeur."—LACROIX, *Îles de la Grèce*.

reign dominion. With this view he landed a few of his followers, and appointed his relative Membliares their governor, who ruled through eight generations; and their successors maintained the dominion for a space of 363 years, *i. e.* from 2600 to the year 2963, when the sovereignty passed to fresh masters by the arrival of another enterprising body of settlers." Pliny, indeed, speaks of both Thera and Therasia as having been thrown up by the sea in the fourth year of the 135th Olympiad, or about 237 years B.C., a date quite inconsistent with the statement of Herodotus as to its being given by Cadmus to Membliares. Still, the tradition as to the formation of a new island here a few centuries before the Christian era, renders it probable that it was on this recurrence of igneous agency that Therasia was separated from the larger neighbouring isle of Santorin, of which it had previously constituted an important part. This is all that history teaches us of the first occupation of Calliste, and although we cannot be fully certain that the island was already inhabited when the Phœnicians arrived there and took possession, the colony could boast the fact that it had for its founder one of the most celebrated men in the annals of ancient Greece, for this was no other than the royal Cadmus, who successfully laboured to civilize his people, who taught them the art of writing, and who ingeniously added sixteen letters to their alphabet, which from his name were called *Cadmeans*.

The second colony was established under the guidance of Theras, the son of Austesion, a Theban noble of royal descent, who landed there with a body of emigrants he brought from Lacedæmonia 1,150 years before the Christian era.

"This Theras," continues Herodotus, "was by birth a Cadmæan, brother to the mother of Aristodemus's sons Eurysthenes and Procles; and while they were yet infants, Theras had the kingdom of Sparta under his guardian rule. But when the youths were grown up and assumed the government, Theras, not brooking to be ruled by others after he had tasted the pleasures of power, declared that he would not remain at Lacedæmon, but would sail away to his own kindred. In the island now called Thera, the same that was formerly Callista, lived the descendants of Membliares, the son of Pæciles, a Phœnician, who occupied the country during eight generations before Theras came from Sparta. To these people, then, Theras went; having with a multitude drawn from the tribes set out, purposing, not subjugation, but to dwell amicably among them, and to strive by all means to conciliate them."—(b. iv. c. 147.)

Thera, although undoubtedly the product of powerful volcanic forces, never possessed the stern appearance that might fairly be supposed, and such as is ordinarily observable in places of similar origin. The name of Calliste in other days sufficiently attests its primitive beauty, which seems to have formed the chief attraction in the settlement of the two first colonies. It is not possible to determine precisely the several changes in its nomenclature. In the course of centuries various appellations have been bestowed on it by ancient geographers or other writers, who often confound one place with another in their narratives. For the adoption of the name of Santorin, the only one known in modern history, no positive evidence is on record. According to some, the island was called *Sainte-Irène*, and afterwards Santorini, because of the martyrdom there of that saint, and for which the island was placed under her protection both by the Greek and Latin churches, who annually celebrate the fête-day with great solemnity on the fifth of May. The inhabitants, however, following tradition, say that the name was derived from a little church dedicated to the same saint situate on the adjacent islet of Therasia. Yet, if we should regard as true the interpretation placed on it by Dante, there is authority for tracing it to another source; for, in his view, the name of the island should be Santalène, composed of the Italian *santa*, and of the Greek *heleni*, whence, by a slight transition, we have Santorini. The Santorin of more recent times is thus described in the pages of M. Tournefort:—

“Were the Phœnicians who first peopled the island now alive, they would not know it again. It is covered entirely with pumice; the whole island is a mere quarry of it, where you may cut as large scantling as you please, just as of any other sort of stone in their respective quarries. The coast all round the island is almost inaccessiblely craggy and rugged, occasioned, I suppose, by the earthquakes. . . . Strabo, in his work, allows it but 25 miles compass, and says it is in form very long. Things are mightily changed since that time, for it is 36 miles about, and in figure exactly like a horse-shoe. No wonder that the form should resemble a half-moon, for such considerable changes have happened in its neighbourhood, that this is but a small matter. Besides the mutation of its form, it has gained 11 miles in length more than it

had in Strabo's days ; but then it has lost all its fine towns, of which Herodotus says there were no fewer than seven. It must likewise have been considerable for its power, since Thera and Melos were the only places that, in the famous war of Peloponnesus, durst declare for the Lacedæmonians against the Athenians, who had all the other isles of Greece on their side. . . . We were first set ashore at San Nicolo, which is on the left as you enter the bay. This port is like a half-moon in form : as fine a port as it looks to be, no ship can anchor in it, for no bottom could ever yet be found by the plumb-line. It has two entrances, one at the south-west, the other at the west-north-west, under shelter of the small isle of Therasia. The 'white island' is out of the port, the 'small island' is within, and 'burnt island' is situated between them both. The latter received a considerable increase in 1427, the 25th November, as is recorded in some Latin verses graved on a marble at Scaro, near the church of the Jesuits. 'Tis said all these islands rose from the bottom of the sea. What a frightful sight to see the teeming earth bring forth such unwieldy burdens ! What prodigious force must there needs be to move them, displace them, and lift them above the water ! No wonder the gulf of Santorin has no bottom : the hollow whence that island issued must, by mechanical necessity, at the same time have been occupied by a like bulk of water. What shocks, what concussions must have distracted the neighbourhood of it when this abyss of a sudden filled itself up again ! Sure this new island was not called by the name of *beautiful* till long after its birth ; for emerging as it did out of the waters, it could be nothing at first but a mass of stone covered over with slime and mud. Numbers of years must have been requisite to the forming out of those substances a soil proper for production. I cannot imagine whence it got the seeds of plants it was adorned with. . . . Strabo, in describing the event, says that the sea was observed to boil four days together between Thera and Therasia ; that it cast forth flames, and an island 1,500 paces in compass manifestly appeared, as if it had been plucked up from the bottom of the water by engines. . . . Nothing is more dry and barren than the soil of the island ; and yet, though 'tis all a mere pumice, the inhabitants, by labour and ingenuity, have made a perfect orchard of the most ungrateful spot of ground in the world ; and, however disagreeable its coast may be, yet is Santorin a jewel compared to the islands about it ; whereas in Nansio, not above 18 miles from it, you see nothing but thistles and brambles, though the land is naturally excellent. The inhabitants of Santorin are all Greeks ; you never hear the name of a Turk mentioned but when they speak of taxes. Most of the houses are caverns dug in the pumice

stone, like badgers' holes : they are arched over with very light stones, reddish, which look to be a half-pumice. Many antiquated rock-tombs occupy its eastern sides, and there is still to be seen in one of the little hills at the foot of a rock the *débris* of an ancient town, and the ruins of a marble-column'd temple. It may have been that of Neptune, built there by the Rhodians ; but the scholiast of Pindar observes that there was another of Minerva, and that the island of Thera was consecrated to Apollo. The following inscriptions among numerous others were found amid the ruins of the finest town of the island, considerable even when Rome was in its glory, since it had leave to consecrate monuments to its emperors."

"Cocranus son of Agnosthenes, and Agnosthenes his son, in the name of the people testify their attachment for Tiberius Claudius Cæsar Augustus Germanicus."

"Under Asclepiades and Quietus, magistrates for the second time, with Alexander son of Euphrosynus, the senate and people of the isle of Thera have caused to be erected the statue of the emperor Cæsar Marcus Aurelius Antoninus Augustus, consecrated by Polyuchus, the high-priest for the second time."

"The senate and the people of Thera assure the emperor Cæsar L. Septimius Severus Pertinax Augustus, of their perfect devotedness."

"Under the magistrates M. Aurelius Isocleus, son of Alcepiades, Aurelius Cleoteles, son of Tyrannus, and Aurelius Philoxemus, son of Abascantus, by order of the senate and people of Thera, Aurelius Isocleus, chief magistrate for the second time, has with expense both of time and money erected this statue of the thrice mighty emperor Cæsar Marcus Aurelius Severus Antoninus Pius Augustus Arabicus, Adiabenicus, Parthicus Germanicus."

"Aurelius Tychasius for his father, and Elpizouse for her dear husband Tychasius, consecrate the testimonies of their mutual love."

"Carpus has consecrated by this monument his love towards his dearest wife Soeido, who had no other husband."

Notwithstanding the destructive influence of repeated Titanic upheavals, the conformation of the modern Santorin reflects no special discredit on the ancient Calliste, for besides other and more substantial advantages, its unique scenery, and the picturesque features that greet the eye at every turn, present a source of perpetual admiration. The sweetness of the prospect is further augmented by the majesty of the surrounding heights, and from the summit of mount Elias, rising in solitary grandeur to an altitude of nearly 2,000 feet, is visible one of the finest landscapes conceivable. Cultivated nearly over its entire sur-

face, the shaded walks, ornate with fruit and foliage, contrast magnificently with its external sterile acclivities, half tilled and half bare, its broad mountain elevations scorched by fire, half sublime and half terrible, that embrace the isle on every side ; whilst its proximity to the ocean, whose waters perpetually lave the sandy shore, realizes for the inhabitants an agreeable promenade both for health and recreation.

“Viewed indeed from the centre of the gulf,” further writes the venerable Abbé, deeply moved by the grandeur of his theme, “the island assumes a repulsive aspect, which depresses the spirits, terrifies the imagination, and fills the soul with pensive melancholy. The shattered cliffs, crumbling around in shapeless ruin ; the everlasting rocks, that rise in majestic grandeur above the clouds ; the vast amphitheatre of stupendous devolutions, on which the morning beams fall cheerless ; the pallor shed by the evening sun on the darkening sea-swept slopes, whose motley points seem to grin hideously in mimic laughter ; the deep and fearful precipices, from whose base the strained eyeballs labour to pierce the upper ranges of basalt that crown the ridge ; the ravages of the volcano, where still are visible traces of the fiery element that worked results so grand,—all press so forcibly on sight and mind, that one might almost fancy being present at this grand display of the marvellous. We seem again to see the dazzling flames gushing in torrents from the nethermost deep ; they traverse the crevices and hollow caves, envelope the mountains in mephitic vapours, which obscure the lurid sky, and cover the earth with fear-inspiring darkness. You seem almost to hear the fierce and deafening roarings of the burning pit ; the prolonged roll and subterranean noises that intermittingly growl in its hollow depths ; the startling detonations that resound in echoes on every side. The claps of thunder, so to say, burst again in imagination, and you shudder at the thought ; you believe almost that you gaze on the molten lava and glowing rocks, now ejected swiftly into space like huge rockets, through clouds of ashes and burning minerals. Amid such exciting scenes of terror and desolation your baffled sight perceives all this vast theatre of confusion and amazement vanish in a moment, swallowed up in the encircling waves with the rapidity of thought, and giving place to the blank stillness of immobile nihility. The world presents no spectacle, either real or imaginary, more imposing, more tragic, or more astounding. ‘With one foot planted on the hanging rock that overlooks these depths, I cast my eye over the vast circumference, meditating on the magical power and effects of

volcanic force ; I feel myself entranced as it were by the dissolving scene ; my spirit, faint and dizzy from vertigo, is unequal to the burthen, and I sink under the overpowering impression !' . . . Such were the solemn words of supernatural accent once mysteriously muttered on the western shores of Santorin."

The eventuality so confidently predicted by M. Pègues was partially realized in 1866 by a fresh eventful eruption in the Therasian gulf. Happily, on this occasion Santorin itself was spared, but its neighbouring waters were once more the scene of powerful igneous action. On the last day of January in that year, sudden explosive sounds like volleys of artillery were heard, unaccompanied, however, by any manifestations of subterranean disturbance, but the next morning lurid flames 15 feet high were seen issuing from the bed of the sea. These became still more considerable on February 4 ; the sea, too, was more disturbed, and much coloured matter in a boiling state was diffused over the surface of the gulf. Gaseous elements forced their way from the innermost depths, with sounds terrific as the bursting of a steam boiler ; flames appeared at intervals, and white smoke, rising steadily in much grandeur, formed a column more than 2,000 feet in height, surmounted by a curled capital of dark, heavy clouds. Molten drops poured forth throughout the day, and congealed to a stony hillock on the verge of the cove. Fire, as from a furnace, issued from this deposit, and a new islet began to arise ; the surrounding waters effervesce furiously, the seething wave lengthens, widens, upheaves ; and thus expanding on every side, at the end of five days it formed a black and smoking mass 350 feet in length, 100 in breadth, and 15 feet high. It consisted of a heavy rusty-black metallic lava, and resembled half-melted scorix bubbling up as from a volcano. It grew as it were out of the bed of the sea, the vitrified substance beneath forcing upward that which was already above water. The lower portion was very hot, its deeper fissures indicating 170° Fahr., and after four days' exposure the upper surface still marked 80°. The temperature of the sea rose from 62° to 122° Fahr., taken as near the seat of eruption as it was safe to approach. This lava island soon connected itself at both its ends with Nêa Kaïmené,



THE ISLE OF SANTORIN, AND THE SUBMARINE VOLCANIC ERUPTION OF FEBRUARY 1869.

the enclosed space forming a crater, which is called *the Volcano*, from being the central position of the volcanic movement. It was noticed as singularly peculiar, that throughout these abnormal perturbations, the surrounding atmosphere was still and serene; calms and light winds prevailed, and the weather assumed more the balmy brightness of spring time than the usual characteristics of so early a period of the year; and Naturalists will hear with interest the additional fact, that very shortly after this desolating submarine upheaval, a bright lichen was observed growing in the very jaws of the newly-formed crater. The marvels of bygone ages were thus solemnly rehearsed on the self-same spot; but the perilous crisis was now passing away; apprehensions for the stability of the island itself subsided; and, as fortunately but few lives were lost, the harassed community soon regained their former tranquillity.

It remains to be said, that from time immemorial the compact tufa or pumice of these islands has been quarried and mixed with lime to make a cement resembling the Italian *pozzolana*, which has the property of hardening under water. Santorin stone was therefore an indispensable material wherever any harbour works were going on in the Mediterranean. The construction of the Suez canal increased so vastly the demand for their tufa, that the islanders cut away whole cliffs, "selling the picturesque at so much the cubic foot." Prior to this accelerated movement the upper beds alone had been worked; but getting down by degrees to the primæval surface of the island, they entered on a course of discovery not previously contemplated or sought for. On pursuing their labours large stones turned up seemingly in casual mixture with the pumice; and they soon observed that these stones were laid in regular courses, which ultimately proved to have formed the topmost portion of walls. Puzzled at first, the workmen, though accustomed to come upon relics of all kinds, thought they had struck the site of some ancient cemetery and re-opened vaults dug far down in the pumice in conformity with the early Greek custom. Persevering in their exploration, domestic apartments were successively uncovered, all constructed of irregular blocks of lava, put together without cement of any kind, but having the interstices filled in with red volcanic earth, which also served as a wash to colour the interior walls. Between the stones were laid in all directions untrimmed branches of the olive, so charred, however, that they generally crumbled away at the slightest touch. Doors and

windows, too, had been surmounted by olive boughs, and their position was ascertained by the displacement of the stones which these boughs had supported. The roofs, composed of thin stones covered with a bed of volcanic earth fixed in the walls, had all fallen in. Only one of the dwellings appeared to have had a second floor. The things found were various. There were large terra-cotta jars, some large enough to hold ten quarts, containing barley, chick-peas, and coriander seed, whilst barley, evidently the food of these people, lay in heaps in several of the rooms. Smaller vases were also exhumed, some plain, with circular band and rows of vertical flutings; others, yet more artistic, of a bright yellow, and ornamented with fine arabesques, showing both skill and taste in the workmanship. Besides the vases there was a considerable quantity of ordinary pottery,—broad basins with little handles, cups, platters, &c., all coarsely made, and devoid of ornament. The skeletons of sheep, young and old, lay in the outer compartments, where mangers and large horse-troughs, with chopped straw still in them, sufficiently evidenced the ancient stable. There were also found sets of lava blocks, which, from their graduated proportions, were evidently used as weights, besides numerous other domestic utensils. A lava oil-press was also dug out, and several small hand-mills likewise of lava. One human skeleton only was discovered,—that of a man apparently suddenly crushed by the falling in of the roof. Nowhere in the course of the exploration was a particle of iron or bronze turned up; no metal, indeed, except two small rings of fine gold, evidently links of a chain, with holes drilled for stringing. Flint instruments were very rare, and confined to a triangular knife or lance-head, a little saw with very regular teeth, and some obsidian arrow-heads,—chipped, not cut,—with a few knives or scrapers also of obsidian. In the absence of all authentic records, it is difficult to conceive the precise period in the life of the young creation when these stupendous convulsions disturbed the earth's surface. The catastrophe came and its action ceased long before the earliest men whose traditions yet survive; while history seems only able to aid us negatively, by pointing to a period more recent than which it could not have occurred. The Phœnicians invaded the Greek islands in the fifteenth century B.C.; but they came, not as warriors, but as peaceful traders; and all their remains, which are numerous, are found *above* the pumice bed, as are other relics of a similar kind with those discovered on the recent excavations beneath, suggesting that after the great eruption, the more elevated surface of the island was re-occupied by a kindred race from a neighbouring isle.

Of all the fertile adjacent isles Santorin appears to be one where the ground is best cultivated, and where the vine grows luxuriantly, though its only soil is composed of the dust of the pumice-stone. Hardly a corner is left untilled ; and although its clearance and manipulation involve much labour and expenditure, they cultivate it up to the margin of the rocks. Few countries are seen where they plant the vines so far apart from each other,—often eight feet, or even more, the distance being governed by the quality, the strength, or the aridity of the ground, in order that each stock may be sufficiently nourished, and its roots freely developed. The stems, consequently, are strong, stout, and vigorous ; instead of rearing one branch, or a slender and delicate shoot, they train four, five, six, which spread out in the form of a chandelier, crowned with an abundant foliage. In due time these become loaded with giant grapes that rejoice the vintager, and amply recompense him for his labour, for his care, and for the space which he devoted to the advantage of the root itself. As the mode of training the vine at Santorin differs considerably from the practice usual in other countries, and is certainly somewhat singular, the peculiar system there adopted may be deserving of mention. After closely pruning the young plant for the first three or four seasons, and when it has formed a few branches of sufficient strength, the shoots are cut down to two or three feet in length, twined altogether in a roll, and then laid horizontally in a circle on props to support them in the shape of a kind of crown, and in such a manner, that the first shoot will interlace with the second, and that with the third, and so on of the others. Each succeeding year, after dressing the tendrils which the crown has put forth, and pruning such as are too weak, they entwine and rest them on the circle formed the preceding season, widening successively every new layer, and continuing the operation for a period of fifteen or twenty years ; so that a sort of funnel or inverted cone is gradually produced by a succession of these crowns uniformly superposed. The plants so fashioned, when in full verdure, resemble a circular bushy shrub, become well laden with fruit, and produce a much

larger quantity than older vines ; but the wine derived from the grapes is considered inferior in point of quality.

The vinous products of Santorin, which comprise both red and white varieties, are large in quantity and fine in quality ; and what is more beneficial still, they neither require the addition of spirit to preserve them, nor is it ever done. They rank high among the strongest wines in the world, their average strength ranging from 24° to 28° of proof spirit. The best dry red growth is named Santorin, a firm, full-bodied, and agreeable wine, acquiring with age a genuine Port-wine flavour. There is a stout and dry white sort, equal, when old in bottle, to the finest Madeira, yet retaining a distinct character of its own. But the Santorin wine *par excellence* is the St. Elie, or 'wine of Night,' a name derived from the fact of the vintage being conducted during the cooler and darker evening hours, the grapes in the day-time being protected by the leafage from the parching solar rays. Pale as the palest of sherries, and resembling when young a fine Rhenish Hock combined with an Amontillado flavour, it soon acquires a fragrancy and aroma surpassing the finest growths of the Peninsula. Being perfectly fermented, with a natural strength equal to 28° of proof spirit, it is sound and dry (*i.e.* not sweet), a quality which renders it not only invigorating and wholesome, but secures the preference and commendation of connoisseurs. Did the British community study their health and comfort as earnestly as they pander to a vitiated because long indulged palate, the wines of Greece would be hailed as a worthy boon, not only as an agreeable dinner beverage, but as a purer medium of social refinement and enjoyment.

Besides the wines above mentioned, there are two varieties of high celebrity deserving mention : the one is Lachryma Christi, deep purple in colour, and the other Vinsanto, a golden amber. Both are extremely sweet, and, although necessarily of low alcoholic strength, are high-flavoured, mellow, and fragrant. These liqueur wines, perhaps the most known and best appreciated out of the island, are said to excel the finest products of Naxos, Paros, Tenedos, Scopelos, Chios, and all the malmseys of the Archipelago, or the muscat of Samos. Their inherent properties

are so generous, that the choicer samples excel even the renowned *vin de Chypre*, without undergoing so many questionable manipulations to improve and ripen them. When well made they exhibit a silky softness, a honied fulness of flavour that hangs tenaciously on the palate without betraying their innate strength, which is scarcely felt at the moment. Confined to the dessert, they are ordinarily served in small glasses even at Santorin, and are peculiarly suited to the taste of ladies, who in their choice of wines mostly prefer those which are sweet. They are best when well matured by age, being then perfectly bright; they are rich in aroma and perfume, with a balmy smoothness grateful alike to the taste and the stomach,—wines, indeed, that, “without fear of rejection, might appear with honour at the table of kings, and figure with distinction at their banquets. Their brilliant colour, however, and their alluring flavour, which invite us to drink, often prove a treacherous snare; for as their potency is not quickly perceived, numbers have been made to repent making too free with their seductive qualities, and trusting too far the honey-lipped hypocrite.” In their manufacture the mode pursued is very simple; it consists in merely exposing the grapes, after being clipped from the vine, to the influence of the sun for eight or ten days, till they are sufficiently dried for yielding a wine more or less luscious, as may be required. By this means all the aqueous portion of the fruit is absorbed, and if in this state the syrupy extract could be made to flow, wine might be produced of the consistence as well as the sweetness of honey.

“The wines of Santorin,” observes Fredrika Bremer, in her recent book on *Greece and the Greeks*, “will keep good year after year. I have visited a great wine-cellar excavated within the mountain, and have there tasted sixteen or eighteen different sorts of wine, all prepared from the grapes of Santorin. I was most pleased with the ‘wine of Bacchus,’ [Ambrosia] with the taste of nectar and colour of liquid gold; so also the ‘wine of Night,’ [St. Elie] which has an agreeable acid flavour, like Rhine wine, only milder. The entire island is a vineyard, and the productiveness of its volcanic soil for wine has attracted thither a population which is now too large for the resources of the island. . . . We ate a cheerful dinner at the Dimarch’s, with compliments and toasts, which

were drunk in nine different kinds of wine,—Bacchus-wine, Santo-wine, Night-wine, Callista-wine, and other kinds,—all good ; but the wine of Bacchus, nevertheless, the best.”

More than sixty species of grape are naturalized at Santorin, but in the manufacture of wine, both red and white, one sort, the *assyrticon*, is almost exclusively employed. Fruit for the table is raised in great profusion, and some of the vines yield enormous grapes, the bunches weighing sometimes as much as ten or twelve pounds. “I have seen,” says a credible witness, “a pannier of 48 lbs. filled by a single stem, although this is of rare occurrence.” The fruit is larger and much more juicy than that of France, and when ripe does not set the teeth on edge, as in some countries. In former times, the chief products of the island were barley and cotton, and more anciently still the olive also, but the culture of the vine has nearly superseded that of every other. In ordinary seasons the growths yield about 9,000 pipes of wine, but in years of abundance 11,000 pipes are obtained, and sometimes more. The exports being thus reduced to the single article of wine, the commercial relations of Santorin have hitherto been confined, for the most part, to the limits of the Black Sea. The principal consignments go to Taganrog at the mouth of the Don, to Odessa, and to Tanais in the sea of Azof. At Taganrog the wine is bought by the Cossacks, who convey it at great cost to the interior provinces of Russia, where it undergoes various manipulations, and is too often sadly disparaged by mixture with wines of inferior quality. For this compound its reputation serves as a passport, the genuine being reserved to the use of families of opulence and rank. In still earlier times, when the vineyards were as yet but inconsiderable, the shipments were mostly restricted to the neighbouring islands. By degrees, however, the field of enterprise was extended ; the shores of the Euxine were visited, and the wines at the present day are received with the same unqualified approval in the New World as in many of the principal cities of Europe. “In fine,” testifies a long-resident witness, Abbé Pègues, “I would here repeat, that the Santoriniotes well understand how to fabricate their wine, and permit no sophistication whatever ; they neglect

no care to preserve it in its natural state, or to guard it from deterioration either in colour, flavour, or purity, so as to insure for the consumer all the reputation it deserves."

Several of the isles in the Grecian Archipelago, as Ithaca, Cephalonia, Candia, and Cyprus, yield abundance of dry red wines. In some places, the product is collected in skins smeared with tar, which impart a disagreeable taste, and unsuit it for use until subdued by long keeping ; but the poverty of the farmers will seldom allow them to adopt proper means for preserving their produce. Some of the Cyprus wine is so tainted with the odour of the skin, that it cannot when young be drunk without the addition of water, except at the risk of a severe headache ; and one growth of Chios was said to be so potent, as to almost instantly overcome the stranger who might unwittingly quaff the enticing draught.

Remarks have been frequently made in censure of the presence of resin in the native-made wines of Greece, alleging that its use was not only absolutely necessary for their preservation, but that it was invariably added to all their vintages. Nothing can be more erroneous ; the fact being that wine in Greece is now, as in days of yore, rarely if ever drunk without being diluted with water, which in that country is very calcareous. To obviate its evil tendencies pine-cones are placed in the casks, from which a resinous flavour is imparted to the wine ; and its diuretic properties are considered highly beneficial, not only in suppressing latent symptoms of calculus, but as a preservative against the insidious approach of malarious fever. Wines so prepared, however, are never imported into this country, their use being entirely confined to the resident population. Moreover, they are never plastered ; *i.e.* gypsum or plaster of Paris is never sprinkled on the grapes at the wine-press, as is invariably the case in Spain. Consequently the naturally evolved tartrates are not turned into sulphates, and the wine retains an agreeable refreshing taste, in which all sherries are deficient.

The IONIAN ISLANDS yield good and serviceable wines, whenever care is exerted in the management of the vintage.

The red wine of Corfu is distinguished by its lightness and delicacy: it also produces from dried raisins a cordial liqueur called Rosolio. Cephalonia, besides the red kinds common to the other islands, has a white muscadine peculiar to its own shores; and the Zante wines, both dry and sweet, are in much esteem. Of the latter, one is a *vin de liqueur*, made from the Corinth grape. They have also a rich muscadine wine, which is without a rival in the Levant, and is thought to resemble in character the imperial Tokay. All the varieties grown on the island are strong, and they make one kind which is taken as a cordial, notwithstanding water is added to the grapes after they are crushed.

But the isles of the Ionian sea, once known as the *Republic of the Seven Islands*, and the neighbouring coasts, are renowned more for their bountiful supplies of the useful dried currant than for rich or mellow wine. This article of domestic import, the staple of modern Greek commerce and the wealth of Corinth, is the fruit of a species of vine bearing so close an affinity and resemblance to the ordinary grape plant, as to deserve a passing notice. In form, leaf, size, and mode of growth, to the eye of the casual observer it presents little or no apparent difference, its berries growing in similar bunches, which look exactly like miniature black grapes. The vines do not hang in festoons upon trees as in Italy, nor are they kept low as in France. Each root forms an isolated verdant bush, round which the fruit hangs in autumn like drooping crystals. The word *currant* is a corruption of Corinth, from which once-celebrated Grecian city they were first imported, and it has similarly impressed its name for the fruit on most European languages. A stout, full-bodied white wine, called Corinthe, of considerable merit and agreeable flavour, is obtained from its fruit, which also yields a sparkling variety of good quality, with much of the character and briskness of Champagne. Corinth is delightfully situate in the centre of the Morean isthmus. From the neighbouring heights of Helicon and Parnassus the view is incomparable. Twelve years ago an earthquake of two minutes' duration overwhelmed the city, and left it little else than a mass of rubbish and loose stones. The inhabitants have ceased to build on the same site, as the recurrence of

decennial catastrophes seems to prove that a volcanic axle of earthquakes passes under the ancient city, and Patras now takes the lead in foreign commerce. Its devastated vine-grounds, planted afresh and sedulously tilled, produce dry full-bodied red and white wines of excellent quality, which are much commended for their invigorating properties. But of all places in the far East, none perhaps can present a combination so quaint and picturesque as that of Smyrna, one of the largest and richest cities in the Levant. Whichever way you look, a charming picture presents itself. The curious architecture of the buildings ; the multicoloured costume of the motley population ; the long-bearded Turk ; the sombre appearance of the Turkish female beside the classically draped Grecian woman ; sailors from the Archipelago with large red caps and broad sashes ; dervishes in grey cloaks and caps shaped inwards, and Greek priests in black gowns and caps shaped outwards ; Arabs, Tartars, camels and their drivers, with the bedizened Carvass, his belt crammed with pistols, swords, and daggers gorgeously mounted with silver and gold, dangerous, possibly, only to those who use them ; together with numerous other strange and striking objects, jostling each other in streets where vines are trained across from house to house, with innumerable mats and awnings stretched and hung around to avert the overpowering heat of an unclouded sun. The privileges this city has enjoyed for many ages render it a favourite port for traders and a central emporium for merchandise from all parts of the world, notwithstanding, in its turn, it has been more than once destroyed by violent recurrent earthquakes.

The currant vine is an exceedingly tender plant, requiring the greatest care in its cultivation ; yet in the end it well repays the cost and patience bestowed upon it. It is extremely fastidious in its selection of the soil and temperature suited to its growth ; and its after-developement is so slow, that for six years it bears no fruit at all, and does not yield a full crop before the fifteenth season. It thrives best on the southern shores of the gulfs of Corinth and Lepanto, and on the ancient Peloponnesus. The only other places where currants will grow are three of the more fertile of the Ionian isles, for they resist every attempt at

transplantation in other countries of similar temperature or latitude. In Sicily and Malta the cuttings passed into the ordinary grape, and in Spain they would not take root at all ; even at so short a distance as Athens recent similar and persevering attempts signally failed, yet the fertile and lovely island of Zante is nearly buried in the profusion of its innumerable plantations. During the long and desolating war of Greek independence the cultivation was neglected, and the vines were mostly burned and destroyed ; but in more peaceful times industry resumed its quiet sway ; the currant trade is again in the ascendant ; it has already assumed gigantic proportions ; and mainly contributes to the wealth and employment of the population. The operation of thoroughly drying the fruit, however, is indispensable for the completion of the harvest ; and this being carried out in the open air, a continuance of fair weather is a prime necessity for a successful result. The intervention of a wet season would render this necessary process impracticable ; the fruit would lose its commercial value, and realize little beyond disappointment and loss. Under such depressing influences attempts were made, as a remedial measure, to convert this unsaleable produce into a vinous beverage, and considerable quantities, fair in quality and low in price, can now be so obtained, the juice of the currant being found to contain from 24 to 29 per cent. of sugar. The annual aggregate exportation of currants from the Morea alone now amounts to 70,000,000 lbs., the greater part of which is shipped to Great Britain.





SECTION XV.

“On grassy slopes the twining vine-boughs grew,
And hoary olives ’twixt far mountains blue;
And many-coloured flowers, like as a cloud,
The rugged lofty cliffs did softly shroud.”

MORRIS—*Life of Jason.*

The Wines of Persia, Arabia, and the Holy Land.



ALTHOUGH it may be truly said that the early history of the vine is lost in the mists of grey antiquity, yet it cannot be doubted that Asia,—the scene of so many incidents of interest and importance to the human race,—was the mother-country of the grape. All evidence, traditional or scientific, points to the East as the cradle of our remote progenitors; whilst the labours of mythologists have aided the diligent inquirer who seeks for the origin of Greek and mythic lore, the wild legends of Scandinavia, and even our own infantile familiarity with ogres and fairies, to find them in the adoration of Nature's inherent power, which stood for religion with the rude ancestry of the Hindus and Persians, whose primitive communities seem first to have congregated upon or near the great Pamir steppe, on the slopes of the lofty Hindu-Koosh and its neighbouring mountains.

“The great plateau of the Pamir,” notes captain J. Wood, in his narrative of a perilous journey across the wilds of Central Asia,—“‘the roof,’ or rather the ‘first floor of the world’ in native dialect,—extends to a great distance both in length and breadth, at an elevation about equal to the topmost point of Mont Blanc. In winter it is covered deeply with snow; but the summer sun causes this to disappear, and supplies its place with a mantle of the richest verdure. So picturesque, indeed, is the flowery aspect, and so rapid the transformation, according to the description by every traveller who has succeeded in finding his way to this garden of Eden,—as the plateau and its surroundings are

held to be by many interested in the investigations of antiquity,—so rarified the atmosphere of this region, so light and exciting its mountain air, that the human pulse nearly doubles its pace, and a few strokes of an axe, or a run of a few paces, will bring a strong man, unaccustomed to breathe such translucent ether, to the ground, panting and exhausted." Pursuing his journey in mid-winter, captain Wood followed one of the chief streams of the Oxus along its frozen bed to its source in a lake on the great Pamir steppe. On his arrival there a night had to be passed at an enormous altitude, where the pulses of some of the party galloped 124 beats in a minute, the lowest being 110. In the morning the intrepid traveller and his followers sallied forth to sound the depth of water in the lake, a matter of some difficulty, for the ice $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet thick had to be broken, and "a few strokes of the pick-axe produced an exhaustion that stretched us upon the snow to recruit our breath. At this elevation, too, the human voice was sensibly affected, and conversation hushed for very weariness."—*Journey to the Source of the Oxus.*

The rigid austerity and rapid seasonal transitions to which the barren ridges of the great Scythian desert are also subject, find record in the *Visit to High Tartary* of Mr. Shaw, the first Englishman that ever crossed the lofty range of the snow-capped Himalayas, who writes,—“The influence of its gigantic mountain barriers and the high level of the lowest lands make the cold of the climate intense and prolonged, and Eastern Turkestan is bound for months in the chains of a winter of as great severity as that of Siberia or Nova Zembla. The late spring, however, comes suddenly, and, watered by the drainage from the western side of the Pamir and other mountain slopes, is followed by a brief but ardent summer, and then the land seems to break out in joy; the cultivated farms grow white with corn, the low hill-sides bear the purple fruitage of vines spreading in thick profusion; even the apricot mellows in the sunny air, and the maize-fields revel in golden plenty.”

Notwithstanding the presence of such climatic severities over a portion of its surface, the proud distinction is claimed for Persia of being the fostering birth-place of the vine, the scene of its culture and dispersion; and, certainly, no country on the earth's surface can excel it in greater profusion of luscious fruits and fragrant flowers. The native roses are celebrated for uncommon size and beauty,—the bushes often bearing three varieties on one branch, such as yellow, yellow and black, and red. Sir John Chardin testifies to seeing fifty kinds of juicy

fruit served at an entertainment near Ispahan ; and the grapes in the immediate vicinity of that city are known to abound in rich profusion, and their quality to be superlative. None procurable at Constantinople, in Crete or Cyprus, in Syria, in Provence, or in Italy, will bear comparison, travellers assert, with the *kismish* grape, of which the berry is white, of an oval shape and middling size, having a very delicate skin, an agreeable acidulous taste, and no pips. It is in great request, both for the table and the vat, and when dried forms an excellent substitute for currants. At Shiraz this fruit is described by sir R. Kerr Porter as growing to a size and fulness hardly to be matched in other climates. Yet, according to the statement of another accomplished traveller, Mr. Morier, even the grapes of Shiraz, in their turn, are surpassed in quality by those of Casvin.

The Persians have a tradition that wine, through a fortuitous incident, was first discovered by their king Jemsheed, the founder of Persepolis. This monarch, being inordinately fond of grapes, directed a large quantity to be carefully stored up, in order to supply him with his favourite fruit beyond the ordinary vintage season. After awhile this notable reserve was uncovered, but instead of the refreshing treat anticipated, the discomfited monarch was astonished at finding the mass in active fermentation, its aspect repellent, and the taste execrable. This natural and spontaneous action being little expected and less understood, the simmering juice was pronounced to be dangerous, if not poisonous ; so the king commanded it to be sealed up, and marked accordingly. It so chanced, that shortly afterwards the beauteous Gulnare, one of Jemsheed's numerous wives, satiated with the joyless life of the harem, and suffering from chronic neuralgia, gained access to the condemned store, and hoping to quench at once all her earthly sorrows, she resolutely swallowed some of the ambiguous fluid. Pleased unexpectedly with its soothing influence she drank yet deeper, and in fact got completely fuddled. After a long and refreshing sleep the venturesome lady awoke in renewed vigour, and clandestinely indulged in so many further potations, that she drained the juicy contents to the last drop. On becoming aware of what had occurred, so far

from showing anger or displeasure, the king took the hint for his own behoof. The novel process was carefully repeated ; Jemsheed and all his court drank fearlessly of the novel beverage ; and hence the origin of the veritable juice of the grape.* This incident is related in Moolah Ackber's MSS., as quoted by sir John Malcolm in his Persian history ; but whether founded on fact or purely fabulous, the general assent of universal tradition ascribes the true source of the vine to Persia. The fruit in that country certainly attains a remarkable size, some of the berries forming a fair mouthful ; and the provinces bordering on the southern end of the Caspian sea have been always in repute for excellent wine. "Both the soil and climate," notes the observant Gibbon, "are relaxed by excessive moisture, yet the vintage is more plentiful than the harvest, and the bulk of the stems, as well as the quality of the wine, display the unassisted powers of nature."—chap. xlii. The Armenians are said to claim precedence, because Noah planted his vineyard near Erivan, upon the very spot where he and his family resided before the Deluge. The probability or otherwise of this archaic pretension must be left for learned theologians and curious casuists to divine ; but what is more certain is, that ancient Persia produced wines of surpassing quality,—those of Bactriana, Ariana, Hyrcania, Margiana, and especially those of Chalybon, which never appeared on any but regal tables.

A vast proportion of the Persian empire would disappoint the traveller who has heard of the supreme beauty of the country, and the luxuries which are there said to abound. The fertile spots, indeed, are equal to every thing narrated of them, but relatively with its extent of surface they are not very numerous. The heat, too, that prevails in the more central portions of the country, at some seasons of the year, is so extreme as to be almost insupportable.

"Au désert par les feux du soleil ravagé,
Où l'homme ne peut vivre, et dont il se retiré."

* This curious tradition, of many centuries' duration, might seem at first sight more calculated to provoke a smile of incredulity than to be regarded as a plain matter of fact ; yet the possibility of its being founded on some reality of the kind finds considerable support from an analogous occurrence mentioned *infra*,—p. 443.

Strabo describes the city of Susis, or Susiana, situate on its confines, as possessing "so glowing and scorching an atmosphere, that lizards and serpents, at mid-day in the summer, cannot cross the streets quick enough to prevent their being scorched to death mid-way by the heat. Cold water for baths is quickly heated by exposure to the sun. Barley spread out under its rays is roasted like grain prepared in ovens; * and for this reason earth is laid to the depth of two cubits upon the roofs of the houses. The soil, however, is so fertile in grain, that barley and wheat produce ordinarily one hundred, and sometimes even two hundredfold."—b. xv. c. iii. §§ 11, 12.

In the *Autobiography of Lutfullah*, a Mahomedan interpreter in the employ of the hon. East India Company, we have further evidence of the powerful effects of an ardent atmosphere on the sandy plains of Sindh. "The fierce glare of a vertical sun," he says, "now attended with the hot wind, was so distressing, that we felt confident, in case nothing else could destroy us, the heat would very soon. The thermometer in my small hut was 110° in the middle of the day, and 90° in the cooler hours: exposure to the sun was certain death, the thermometer then rising to no less than 150 degrees. I ordered some eggs to be placed on the open sand to see the full power of the sun's rays, and found them well roasted in about forty minutes." Nor should the yet more recent experience of lieutenant Willans, be passed over in silence, who, in an interesting article on incidents in connexion with the Abyssinian expedition, describes the temporary railway for facilitating the landing of army stores and supplies as "constructed under painful hardships and difficulties in extreme heat, which sometimes reached 180° Fahr. in the sun."

It is chiefly along the line of mountains that stretch from the Persian gulf to the Caspian sea that the best wine-districts are situated. The whole country round Shiraz is covered with the vine, and it is in Ferdistan, upon the lowest slope of the mountains near that town, that the largest grapes in Persia are grown: but the imperial grape of Tauris is most extolled for

* The incident thus forcibly related by Strabo may, perhaps, be thought somewhat overstated, if reliable at all; modern confirmatory evidence, however, is not wanting of the exhaustive influence of high tropical latitudes, and its withering effect on animal life. Mr. Young, who shared with Dr. Livingstone the danger and privations of African travel, tells us that, when skirting along the reedy banks of lake Nyanza, "the heat we here felt was very oppressive; the thermometer stood at 100 degrees in the shade, and 135 in the sun. . . . To place the hand upon the steel plates of our boat was impossible."

eating and the dessert, being thought more delicately luscious. The principal vineyards in the environs of Shiraz are situate at the foot of the mountains to the north-west of the town, where the soil is rocky, and the exposure extremely favourable. The vines are all kept low, and are occasionally supported by stakes. The finest red wine is made from a grape named *damas* : it is said to possess much strength and richness, and to keep well for four-score years or more, retaining all its virtues in high perfection. Twelve varieties of grape are grown in this locality, including a violet, a red, a brown, and even a black species—as the *samar-cand* grape. A single bunch of some kinds will weigh as much as a dozen pounds. The wine of Shiraz is sold by weight, and is kept either in flasks or well-glazed earthen jars. It is described by Chardin as of excellent quality, and though inferior in delicacy to the vintages of his own country, and at first somewhat rough to the taste ; yet, after drinking it for a few days, he relished it so much as to give it the preference over all other wines. Kæmpfer extols it more highly, placing it, in point of flavour and aroma, on a level with the best growths of Champagne and Burgundy. The declining demand, however, and the legal hindrances opposed to the manufacture, have probably tended to impair the quality ; the culture of the vine at the present day is comparatively neglected, and only small quantities of the highest standard are now procurable. Mr. Morier mentions a singular custom among the vine-dressers of Persia, who sometimes train up their plants on the face of a wall, and then make them hang down on the opposite side by affixing weights to the tendrils and branches. One of the wines of Shiraz is a *liqueur*, made remarkably sweet and rich, and full of strength and perfume ; and another of a peculiar grape, the *barbarossa* (red-beard), the product of a vine so named from its long red clusters of fruit, grown chiefly in Persian territory. The red sort sent to Europe is like Bordeaux in appearance, and of a taste not always agreeable to strangers. Teheran, Yezd, Shami, Gilan, Casvin, Tabriz, and Ispahan constitute the principal vine-districts. Few Persian wines, however, are much known out of their several localities ; most of them are indifferent, and

even the wine of Shiraz, so lauded in exaggerated strains by the verses of Hafiz, no longer maintains the peerless celebrity which it enjoyed of old, and it is not improbable that, like the Falernian of Horace, its praises were as much due to poetic fancy as to superlative excellence.

Notwithstanding the denunciation of the Koran against the use of wine, a great deal is secretly consumed by lax professors of that creed. But the Persians, who are of the sect of Sonnites, or followers of Ali, have always been less scrupulous observers of this precept than the more rigid disciples of Omar; they frequently indulge in wine, and generally to intemperance, as they can imagine no pleasure in its use unless it produce the full delirium of intoxication. So Mahomet, finding that his followers when in such a predicament were quite ungovernable, and ready to commit the most cruel excesses, made it an article of religious faith to drink no wine, which was enforced by succeeding chiefs and severe decrees with dubious results. Sir Paul Ricaut records this abortive design in these words:—

“In the year 1634, Amurath resolved to suppress entirely the use of wine. He issued a rigid edict, which commanded all the houses where wine was sold to be razed, and the wine let out into the streets. And that he might be fully satisfied that his orders were obeyed, he frequently walked in disguise about the city; and when he found any one dealing with wine, he sent him to prison, and had him bastinadoed almost to death. But this great severity did not last long, and all things returned to their former condition.”—*Present State of the Ottoman Empire.*

Matters, however, again took a fresh turn under the sway of Mahomet IV., who in 1670 resolved to forbid the use of wine to the soldiery. A stern firman was published prohibiting entirely the use of wine throughout the empire, and commanding all who had any in their houses to send it away. The sultan punished with death every violater of this decree, in which he described wine as a liquor infernal, invented by the devil to destroy the souls of men, to disturb their reason, and to put States into confusion. So rigorously was this prohibitory law enforced, and to such an extremity, that it cost the ambassador and resident English merchants great solicitation and large sums of money

to get leave to obtain as much wine as would barely suffice for their own families. Indeed, this edict was so inexorable, that wine seemed banished for ever from the dominions of the Sublime Porte. Nevertheless, the stringency of its action in a year or two's time gradually relaxed, the Christians got leave to make it for themselves, and soon after that the indulgence for wine was general, the taverns were opened, and its consumption became as common as before. The Turks, in their hearty appreciation of its beneficent properties, laugh at Christians for mingling water with it ; and yet if they spill but a single drop upon any part of their apparel, however costly it may be, they immediately cast it from them as polluted. Of late years the manufacture of wine in Persia has become greatly reduced, and there is too much reason to surmise that the product of the still has usurped its place with the Mussulmans in their covert and zealous oblations to Bacchus. The Armenians at Chiulful were formerly great drunkards, though not profane or quarrelsome in their cups ; on the contrary, they were doubly devout, and when very much intoxicated, poured forth maudlin prayers to the Virgin and her Son. The Turkish population is eminently prone to intemperance ; hence the Jews and Armenians prepare wine expressly for the use of Mahomedans, by adding lime, hemp, and other ingredients to increase its pungency and strength ; for that which soonest intoxicates is by them accounted the best, and the lighter and more delicate kinds are little esteemed. Indeed the gravity, calm and unbending, that once distinguished the denizen of the East has long been on the wane, and a growing toleration and the practice of social intercourse and refinement, as well as mere jovial amenities, are said to mark the bearing of the wealthier members of the community, or, to use the words of a Moslem writer of recent date—the sagacious moonshi Lutfullah,—

“Notwithstanding true believers are rigorously prohibited from using any inebriating thing, yet those who abstain from intoxicating drugs or liquors do not exceed one in five thousand.”

In further corroboration of the alleged relaxation of their proverbial stolidity, the shade of the illustrious Byron is evoked in saying that—

"Suleyman Aga, late governor of Athens, and now of Thebes, was a *bon vivant*, and as social a being as ever sat cross-legged at a tray or a table. During the carnival, when our English party were masquerading, both himself and his successor were more happy to 'receive masks' than any dowager in Grosvenor-square. On one occasion of his supping at my apartment in the Franciscan convent, his friend and visitor, the Cadi of Thebes, was carried from table perfectly qualified for any club in Christendom, while the worthy Waiwōde himself triumphed in his fall." The love of wine among the Persians is well authenticated from the earliest antiquity, which often led them into extravagant excesses. Herodotus describes them "as much addicted to drinking, and accustomed to discuss the most important affairs when excited with wine; and whatever they may have determined upon when sober, they consider anew over their cups."—b. i. sec. 135. A similar statement is made by Strabo, who tells us that "the entertainments of the Persians are expensive; their couches, drinking-cups, and other articles are so brilliantly ornamented, that they gleam with gold and silver. Their consultations carried on whilst drinking, they consider more reliable than those made when they are sober."—b. xv. c. iii.

Their gifted and favourite poet Hafiz, too, it would seem, not only gaily shared in their festivities, but, if judged by much of his own mellifluous verse, he must have been no indolent votary of Bacchus. "Give me wine," he exclaims; "wine that shall subdue the strongest, that I may for a time forget the cares and troubles of the world. That poignant liquor which the zealot calls the mother of sins, is pleasanter and sweeter to me than the caresses of a young maiden. I am neither a judge, nor a priest, nor a censor, nor a lawyer; why, then, should I forbid the use of wine?"

"The only friends who are free from care, are a goblet of wine and a book of odes. Do not be vexed at the trifles of the world; drink! for it is folly for a wise man to be afflicted.

"The occupations of life are vain: bring me wine! for the trappings of the world are perishable. The roses have come, and nothing can afford so much pleasure as a goblet of rich and mellow wine."

Modern travellers generally concur in stating that the laws of moderation in Persia still continue to be as little regarded as the prohibitive injunctions of its religious code. The Jews and Armenian Christians are the principal manufacturers and dealers in wine; and although there is scarcely a province in the empire which does not produce it, yet the wine of some is much more

esteemed than that of others, Shiraz being considered by far the best. It has so strong a body, that, as already said, it will keep for nearly a century without diminution of flavour or colour. To eat the bread of Yezd, and drink the wine of Shiraz, is proverbially in Persia to be happy. But whilst sherbet, a cooling liquor made of sugar, lemon-juice, and various choice fruits, and for time out of mind a favourite beverage in the East, continues to constitute the ordinary drink in public, with the Mussulman wine is the solace constantly resorted to in private.

Shah Abbas II., historians inform us, was much addicted to wine, and made his courtiers share in his revels ; yet he did not on that account neglect state affairs. His cellars were abundantly stocked with the choicest vintages of Georgia, Karamania, and Shiraz, preserved with great nicety in bottles of Venice crystal ; and every six weeks he received from the first of these countries a supply of twenty chests, each of them containing ten bottles, and each bottle about three quarts. He had also, at different times, wines sent him from Spain, Germany, and France ; but he drank chiefly those of Persia, deeming them preferable to all others. Solyman, his successor, indulged in wine to great excess, and being seldom quite sober, was exceedingly cruel in consequence. His son, Hussein Abbas, was so struck with the baneful effects of intemperance, probably from his father's evil example, that he prohibited the use of it throughout his dominions ; but this decree, admitting of no exceptions, so interfered with his mother's comfort and settled habits, that, to obviate the privation, she feigned serious indisposition, and her complaisant physicians at once declared that nothing but wine would save her life. Hussein, from motives of filial piety, immediately rescinded the distasteful interdict, and even so far obliged his wily parent as to partake of it himself. Under the spell of its influence, he rashly abjured his former temperance, and soon became, like his two royal predecessors, and with still more disastrous results, a confirmed slave to an inordinate love for the seductive charms of vinous inspiration.

In ARABIA the vine is cultivated by Jews and Christians, and there, too, the forbidden draught is quaffed with great relish

by merry and unstable Mahomedans whenever they can get it unobserved. It is much to be feared that this tying down poor human nature with unnecessary or arbitrary restraints everywhere makes sad hypocrites of mankind, who, finding it not always easy to keep even the great laws, are ever inventing some excuse to slip off preternatural handcuffs; and so with the eastern reveller, the cup that inebriates seems all the more ardently coveted from being sternly prohibited by the mandates of an intolerant creed. But the early Arabians were an intellectual and imaginative race; a strong love of poetry pervaded the whole community, and their country gave birth to many minstrels of no ordinary merits. The fragments that still survive—of Assamel and Arribi, of Suraih and Aus, and some others—breathe a noble and a lofty spirit; their diction and versification evince pathos and sweetness as they sing of hospitality and fidelity, of love and wine, of friendship and conviviality. A passion for music and dancing had long been a marked characteristic of these pagan sons of the desert, and at the time of Mahomet poetry was the one great accomplishment, and a sure avenue to distinction and renown. Their lyrical effusions were mostly bacchanalian in character, though the drinking it described was rather the method of the “six-bottle men” of the last century, than the refined sensualists who composed the poems attributed to the muse of Anacreon. The poet El Hasha writes,—

“And I will assuredly drink eight [cups of wine], and eight [more], and eighteen, and two and four,” thus raising the number to forty. The same poet is particular in telling how early he began his potations, so that it may be hoped that the forty cups occupied a considerable part of the day: “And we arose, ere our cock had yet crowed, to a wine-jar smeared with pitch in the possession of its seller,” &c. The still more famous poet Lebeed was also a morning toper, and liked to add the charms of music to the pleasure of his early revels, stimulating enjoyment “with a morning potation of clear wine, and a female singer’s straining [of the chords] with a stringed instrument, to which her thumb returns,” &c.* No wonder that it all ended in the pathetic exordium of a certain nameless poet,—“Is there no way of return to youth, seeing that the remembrance thereof is more pleasant to me than mellow wine?”

* Lane’s Arabic-English Lexicon.

There may be still old gentlemen of the clubs who furtively glance at the same hopeless theme over their "'20 Port," but they are not usually poets. Like the Arabs of the Syrian desert, the Turkish nomads of the steppes of Central Asia have their national poets and their *improvisatori*, who sing to them of freedom and love, heroic deeds and endless plunder. Even among the wild Kirghis, the wandering troubadour of the steppe is always sure to find a hearty welcome in the poorest dwelling, where he is seated and refreshed, with a bowl before him of *koumis*, the strong drink prepared from mare's milk. Wandering listless and dreamingly on the sterile pathway, mandolin-like instrument in hand, the eastern troubadour is mostly lean and sallow, as becomes one who is consumed by the sacred fire of poesy, and whose trade involves the consumption of much koumis, and being wrapt in a perpetual state of trance.

Although the use of wine was interdicted by Mahomet as one test of faith in his disciples, it is manifest that for any such restriction he derived no sanction from the precepts or example of the patriarchs of old, for our most ancient and sacred records frequently recognise the beneficent properties of the vine, and the great utility of its produce to man, as well as its constant presence at the tables of the great. Thus we find it narrated of Joseph, that when interpreting the dream of the king's butler, he said, "God bestowed the fruit of the vine upon man for good ; which wine is poured out to him, and is the pledge of fidelity and mutual confidence among men ; and puts an end to their quarrels ; takes away passion and grief out of the minds of them that use it, and makes them cheerful."* Witness, also, the particulars recorded in the account of Belshazzar's feast, where the king is described as saluting his company by drinking wine before the thousand ; and afterwards he and his princes, his wives and the royal concubines, drank wine from the holy vessels sacrilegiously taken from the temple. These interesting facts go far to prove an early appreciation and use of wine, and its customary ministration on all solemn and state occasions. In the writings of

* Josephus on the *Antiquities of the Jews*.

Jewish historians we also read how constant and vigilant were the rulers of that chosen people in providing and protecting vine-grounds for the several tribes ; and the quality of the produce is sufficiently evinced in 1 Esdras, chap. iii. iv., wherein it is ingeniously argued before king Darius, that wine is more powerful and influential than wisdom, war, or beauty.

SYRIA produces red and white wines similar in character to those of Bordeaux, but the vintages of this region are in general of little repute. The vine-grounds near Jerusalem yield a few white wines, but they are poor in quality, and command very little notice. At Damascus the "wine of Tyre" of the Scriptures, called by Ezekiel "wine of Helbon," is yet made : it is a rich sort. This wine is said to have been well known in early times under the name of Chalibonian wine, and was much esteemed for its fulness of body and flavour.

"It is curious," writes a friendly sojourner in that city, "to note how much Damascus remains so purely eastern in all its outward aspects. It was a city not without fame in the time of Abraham, and still retains many of its primitive characteristics. One has only to stroll from the doorway to realize the social surroundings and picturesque scenes we dreamt of on perusing a tale from the *Arabian Nights*. The way is blocked with members of every eastern tribe short of China, with their camels and their burthens of costly silks and damascenes. The streets, narrow, unpaved, and devious, are lined with endless bazaars and their loquacious occupants, and give light and shade to the gorgeous colouring of the crowd, without offending by an incongruous intrusion of a western costume or a European equipage. For 4,000 years Damascus has remained probably much the same in size and importance ; and, as the oldest commercial city in the world, it would fain struggle to be unalterable. But the eventful march of modern progress is ominous of change, and the children of Damascus can no longer rely on eastern immutability. The thin end of the western wedge is already inserted. The marvellous telegraph now flashes the news of Europe over the mountain ranges of Lebanon, and travellers in spring seek home comforts in an Oriental palace, now converted to the base uses of a caravansera hotel, whilst, in another sense, the taste and habits of the citizens are drifting westwards. It is a hard thing perhaps to say, but the Moslem is becoming sottish, and taking to drink. 'Me no like Turks,' replied a bustling Syrian hotel-master, when asked if many of that race came to his house ; 'Me no like Turks : they drink too much

raki,'—the consumption of which is enormous, and wine itself is no longer despised."

In ALBANIA the people of Erzeroum were ever careless in the treatment of their vines, and on his journey through that district incur the merited rebuke of M. Tournefort, who remarks, somewhat bitterly,—

"'Tis very well for strangers that the water here is good, for their wine is the most abominable stuff that was ever touched. . . . Their brandy is no better ; it is musty and bitter, and, more than all this, it costs no small pains, and money too, before even these filthy beverages can be got. . . . The surrounding hills furnish very fine springs, which not only water their fields, but the very streets of the town. It were well for the personal comfort and cleanliness of its slovenly inhabitants did they profit more from these natural fountains by admitting the water more freely into their unsavoury dwellings."

Famous vineyards still exist on the banks of the Nile throughout the whole of its course ; but the grapes are much smaller than those of the Holy Land, and the wines they produce vary much both in taste and colour. Those which come from Anthylla, near Alexandria, seem to be the most preferred. Herodotus remarks that in the time of Cambyzes, 529 years before Christ, the Syrians were well skilled in the manufacture of palm-wine ; and that the Lotophagi, a people of Africa, who chiefly subsisted on the produce of the lotos plant, made a spirituous liquor from its berries ; and according to Strabo, Ulysses and his companions were enchanted with it.

The delightful country of ASIA MINOR is now very thinly inhabited, and, since the domination of the Turk, is reduced in most places to little better than a desert. But few wines have been made there for generations past ; the precepts and injunctions of the Koran have been well observed, and the culture of the vine consequently neglected ; yet such is the happy nature of the soil and clime, that traces of their former celebrated wines are still discernible in those made from the uncultivated vines that occasionally dot the barren surface. Exception, however, must be taken to this unsatisfactory condition of a country endowed with so many natural advantages in favour of the district round Sidonijah, long famous for the quality

of its wines and the quantities made there, and thus described in the pages of two eminent fellow-travellers of the last century :—

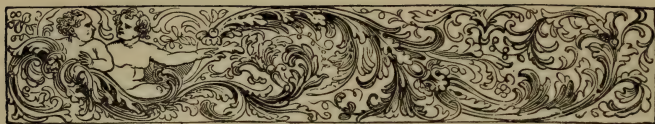
“This town is situate four hours from Damascus, at the extremity of a broad fertile plain : it is the see of a bishop, and entirely inhabited by Greek Christians. Some of the grapes here are of remarkable size, as large as a pigeon's egg, and of a very exquisite taste. The wines are not made from this kind of grapes, which are chiefly cultivated in their gardens, but from the vines of the adjacent mountains, of which Herman and Lebanon are most contiguous.” Dandini, an early Italian traveller, expresses surprise at the unusual size of the grapes he met with near Libanus. “They use no props,” he tells us, “to support the vines, but let them creep along the earth. The wine produced from them is wholesome, and exceedingly pleasant. It is a very surprising thing to observe the bigness of the grape, which is equal to a prune.” “A cluster, two or three feet in length, will,” observes Schutze, “furnish a supper for a whole family.”—“The stony mountain sides and gorges of the Lebanon,” remarks a more recent author, “are built up into narrow terraces, where vines with rich crops of grain and numerous fruit-trees refresh the eye. Rude aqueducts bring down from unfailling sources the water which, regularly distributed in every direction, fertilizes the entire district, and keeps up the appearance of perpetual spring. The small proprietor, surrounded by his sons and daughters, is seen hoeing his patrimony of mulberry-trees or the vineyard. Nowhere, perhaps, if we except Japan, where the mountains are terraced to their summits, can be seen such a picture of cultivation under difficulties as among the valleys of the Lebanon.”—*Eastern Europe and Western Asia* : by HENRY A. TILLEY.

The grapes grown on Mount Libanus, the ancient Lebanon, are thought to be of the same large species as those of Palestine : this may help us to comprehend why it was the Israelites felt so great a desire to taste them, and, after they had seen the grapes brought back by the spies sent out by Joshua, to press forward the conquest of Canaan. Of the wines raised here a few are light and fragrant, but they are mostly *vins cuits*. A variety called *vino de oro*, described as a dry wine, is much commended. The Maronites and natives take their wine freely, and are said to be remarkably convivial.

PALESTINE, it is known, early abounded in excellent vineyards ; but the palm of superiority was the special blessing be-

queathed by Jacob on those of the tribe of Judah. In the time of our Saviour wine existed in much abundance. That in ordinary use was the pure and simple extract from the grape, agreeable and highly refreshing. It was held in much esteem among the Jews, who dispensed it freely at all their entertainments, as we see ensampled at the marriage-feast of Cana. Matrimony was regarded among that ancient people as an institute of high significance and social import, and its ceremonial was conducted with commensurate form and solemnity. The attendant nuptial festival often extended over seven or eight days, which may sufficiently explain any casual deficiency in this essential element of festivity, as well as the maternal alarm implied in the words, "They have no wine!"—an apprehension promptly stilled in so marvellous a manner. Cana was a small town about six miles north-east of Nazareth. It is now called Kefer Kanna, is under Turkish sway, and contains some 300 inhabitants, chiefly Catholics. The natives still pretend to recognise the precise spot where the water was turned into wine, and even to exhibit one of the identical water-pots wherein the miracle was performed. Large stone vessels, it may be added, are said to exist there, the use of which is not only entirely unknown to the present generation, but is beyond the scope of all human tradition.





SECTION XVI.

“Before the king tame leopards led the way,
And troops of lions innocently play :
So Bacchus through the conquer'd Indies rode,
And beasts in gambols frisk'd before the honest god.”

DRYDEN, *Pal. & Arcite*.

The Wines of India, China, and Australia.

LONG anterior to the date of the Christian era, India was regarded by ancient nations as an earthly paradise of luxury and wealth. Little, however, was really known respecting it prior to the invasion of Alexander the Great ; yet a belief generally prevailed that its mountain ranges abounded in all manner of precious stones and gems, that the earth teemed with fruits and flowers of the most delicious and beauteous kind, and that even its very sands were all aglow with grains of shining gold. Similar notions respecting the splendour and opulence of the East continued through succeeding ages down to the gorgeous career of the Great Moguls, when the gradual decline of the empire opened a way for European intercourse and commerce, and to its final subjection to British perseverance and prowess. This rival garden of the Hesperides was regarded in heathen tradition as the birth-place of Bacchus, Suradévi being the name appropriated to the festal goddess of Hindoo mythology. The Greeks figured Bacchus as a lovely youth, a little feminine in form and feature ; and the tale of his tour round the world symbolizes the wide extent of the reception and culture of the vine plant. Ancient legends further represent him as surrounded by a roistering train of youthful Bacchantæ, and travelling in a car drawn by panthers over all Asia Minor, Arabia, Egypt, and Lybia, to Hellas and the sunny isles of the

western Archipelago, where the peoples say, observes Diodorus, he ennobled industry, taught the culture of the fields, the mode of taking honey, the art of pressing grapes and making wine, and many other social benefits; that he resided in his capital of Nysa,* in the modern Punjaub; that his conquests were easy, and without bloodshed; that he ruled the land with moderation and justice, and after his death was adored as their divine governor and master. This, however, fabulous or not, relates only to the territory west of the Sutlej, or, as it was anciently termed, the Hyphasis river, beyond which the arms of Alexander never penetrated; nor does it appear that the antients ever acquired any knowledge of the countries beyond the limits of their conquests. Quintus Curtius, in his life of Alexander, states that at the time of the invasion by that monarch, the Indians made use of a vinous liquor, which is supposed to have been no other than toddy, or the unfermented juice of the cocoa-nut. They manufactured wines, however, from various sources, and among them one from the expressed juice of the palmyra-tree.

India, in the present day, produces little or no wine, except in the northern region between the Sutlej and the Indus: indeed, to the southward the climate is too hot and the soil too rich for vine culture, but a beverage of tolerable quality is made in the vicinity of Lahore. The Hindoos, it is well known, are not more abstemious in the use of inebriating drinks than the people of other countries. Even the Brahmins, whose ordinary drink should be water, sometimes risk the loss of caste by an indulgence of tasting them. Like the Turks, they drink in

* This city, with another of the same name in Ethiopia, or according to others in Arabia, was held sacred to Bacchus, who was educated there by the resident nymphs. The god made it the seat of his empire, and the capital of the nations which he subjugated in the East. As a conqueror he is depicted as of full age, with a beard, a head crowned with ivy, and wearing a *syrrma*, or long triumphal robe. According to some geographers, there were no less than ten places of the name of Nysa. One of these, seated on the coast of Eubœa, a considerable island in the Ægean sea, was famous for its vines, which grew there in so uncommon a manner, that a twig planted in the ground in the morning was fabled to have immediately produced fruit, which matured so fast, that in the evening grapes could be gathered full ripe.

secret, and, like them, take every precaution to avoid detection ; but their hypocrisy does not always elude detection, to the no small merriment of their garrulous neighbours. During the rule of the great Akbar, whose splendid mausoleum still constitutes the pride and jewel of the famed city of Agra, in upper Hindostan, the use of wine was ostensibly prohibited, for in tropical climates men highly intoxicated are prone to commit any outrage ; still, it was always obtainable in this the most favoured locality of his empire, and all the way thence to Cashmere northwards vines are grown and wine manufactured, the produce of the latter region bearing some resemblance to Madeira. According to sir James Fraser, the people at the foot of the Himalaya mountains procure from the grapes they cultivate two sorts of strong liquor : one of a superior kind from the first juice, called *sihec*, fermented in the ordinary way, used by the upper classes ; another, prepared by pouring hot water on the fruit residuum. The hilly district of Nepaul is fertile in much wine suitable for local consumption, the best being treated in the customary manner. At Candahar, as in other Mahomedan countries, its use is strictly forbidden ; but that drunkenness nevertheless does sometimes occur, even among this grave and abstemious sect, is clear from the penalties attached to that description of offence. A convicted transgressor is seated on an ass, with his face towards the tail, which with Asiatics is considered the deepest degradation possible,* and so paraded through the streets, surrounded by a clamorous crowd of scoffing vagabonds. The Sikhs of the Punjaub, whilst in obedience to an injunction of their religion they abstain from smoking tobacco, consider the use of fermented drinks as not forbidden, and indulge so freely in ardent spirits, that sobriety is rare among them, and numbers shorten their days by excessive intemperance. On the table-lands and mountains of India—as on the Neilgherry hills, there can be little doubt that the vine

* This custom of setting men upon an ass by way of penalty and reproach is still visible at Damascus, in Syria ; where, to manifest their dislike towards Christians, the Turks will not suffer them the use of horses, but asses only, when they desire to ride into the country.

would flourish if fostered, the temperature and soil being all that can be desired for that purpose.

CHINA.

The cultivation of the vine in China was known and practised there far beyond the date of any authentic records,—its archaic annals belonging to mythic rather than true history,—which claim for its origin a period so remote as 2500 years B.C. Certain it is that all the songs and lyrics that remain of its early dynasties, down to that of the emperor Han, which commenced 206 years before the Christian era, confirm this opinion, and give us further reason to believe that the Chinese were always fond of wine made from grapes. Grosier says that “the emperor Ha-ou-ti, a prince famed for many virtues, celebrated it with a lyric enthusiasm worthy of Horace or Anacreon;” and we find it stated in the larger Chinese *Herbal*, that it was the wine of honour which cities presented to their governors and viceroys, and even to the reigning monarch. Without, however, referring to remoter ages, it is certain that the vine and the grape are expressly mentioned in Chinese annals in the reign of the emperor Vou-ty, who ascended the throne in the year 140 B.C.; and since his time the use of wine may be traced from dynasty to dynasty, and from reign to reign, down to the 16th century. The people also believe that in the reign of the emperor Yu, 2207 B.C., wine was first made by an agriculturist named I-tye. The government of that day interposed with heavy prohibitory duties, not for the mercenary object of filling the state coffers, but lest the people should grow effeminate by over-indulgence in so attractive a liquor. This philanthropic effort of legislation was vain: those who had tasted could not refrain from tasting again, even to excess; and such was its abundance, that it came to pass, tradition says, that the emperor Kya, the Nero of China, about fifteen hundred years before the coming of Christ, commanded as many as 3,000 of his people to plunge bodily into a broad lake, which he had formed and filled with the exhilarating fluid; thus aptly realizing the Scripture metaphor—“They washed their garments in wine, and their

clothes in the blood of grapes ; yea, their eyes shall be red with wine : ” * while it was in after-days reserved for Chin-vang, in 1120, to assemble a council of princes more effectually to suppress its manufacture, as the source of infinite misfortune and disorder in his dominions.

Another curious story is related by Le Gentil respecting the emperor Kaung-hee, who one day determined in a frolic to experiment on the to him unknown pleasure of intoxication. In this sacrifice to Bacchus he selected for a companion his favourite minister, who, however, artfully contrived to keep sober, whilst his confiding master became so inebriated that he could scarcely stand.

“ The minister,” he continues, “ summoned the chief eunuch, apprized him of the emperor’s condition, and hinted that if they did not contrive to cure him of so vicious a practice, and that speedily, none of their lives would be safe at any moment. ‘ You must therefore,’ he added, ‘ load me with chains, treat me with apparent severity, cast me into a dungeon, and await the issue.’ Kaung-hee, on awaking from his stupor, inquired for his fellow-toper : the chief eunuch replied that he was placed in penal duress for insolently provoking the imperial displeasure. ‘ Put that fellow in prison ! ’ was your majesty’s command, ‘ and feed him with the bread and water of affliction until I come to him.’ The astonished monarch doubted his own senses ; and having ordered the captive to be released forthwith and brought before him, he was so shocked at his downcast and disconsolate appearance, and his own cruelty and injustice, that he never afterwards ventured to repeat the inauspicious carousal.”

The historical records of China, unfortunately, do not supply much information concerning the early culture of the vine within the limits of her territory, or its ministration to the wants or comfort of the people of that ancient empire. Yet it would be wrong to infer that it was held in less esteem there in primitive times than by contemporary or less civilized communities. Although the manufacture of wine was systematically repressed by some of their rulers, the Chinese as a people were not deficient in social amenities, or unaddicted to occasional convivial enjoyments. Ever ingenious, intellectual, and inventive,—so fully

* Genesis xlix. 11, 12.

manifest in their love of literature, in a prior knowledge and use of the mariner's compass, in the art of printing (known in China 500 years before its discovery in Germany) in the fabrication of paper, in the secrets and practice of alchymy, in the invention of gunpowder, and their skill in pyrotechny, pottery, and various curious and ornamental wares, no less than by the construction of great public works. They had their statesmen, their philosophers, their warriors, and their poets; and whilst the fame of Fo and Confucius has been wafted over the whole civilized world for upwards of a thousand years, the name of their greatest bard, the illustrious Li-tai-pé, has lived honoured and revered as a sort of household god in every palace and every cabin of this the most populous country in the universe. Notwithstanding his intemperate habits procured him the questionable title of '*the Immortal given to drink*,' yet, if popularity be a true test of merit, no poet who ever lived, with the exception of Homer, can bear comparison with him for a moment. Throughout the vast area of the 'flowery land,' with its teeming multitudes and ardent worshippers, his songs and flowing couplets are in every one's mouth, equally admired by the most learned and the humblest among the people. As a poet, he seems to have possessed the same easy grace and aptitude that distinguish the writings of Horace; like him, too, his temperament was jocund and sensual; yet in both the inward workings of the spirit were oppressed and obscured by morose and gloomy views of the nature of man, and the ultimate destiny of the human soul. To neither did power or wealth seem worth purchasing by the sacrifice of those epicurean pleasures which, in their view, were all that life had really to offer to the wise and discerning. Li-tai-pé, indeed, appears to have been the prey of a deeper melancholy than his Roman precursor, and devoted himself to intemperance as a fountain of perpetual delight, cultivating inebriety as an art, as much with a view perhaps to escape from oppressive thought, as from any overweening love of liquor for its own sake. The easy-going Chinese, however, did not censure this inordinate love of the bottle as an indelible stain, but rather regarded it as a special merit in their favourite

bard,—probably because in this respect he did little more than give brilliance and animation to their own innermost ideal and desires, and consoling themselves for the uncertainties and asperities of fortune by sensual indulgences, softened indeed and refined under the influence of a reflective and playful love of nature, which apparently lies deep in the national mind. “Let us praise,” says another Chinese writer of verses, “our contemporary Li-tai-pé,—that *Immortal exiled to the Earth*. To sing mirth-inspiring songs, and alternately pour out goblets of wine, that is the history of his life.”

THE CAREER OF ‘THE IMMORTAL GIVEN TO DRINK.’

In birth Li-tai-pé, often for brevity-sake called Li-pé, was of noble blood, being descended, according to his biographers, in the ninth generation from one of the former imperial families. He was born in the year 703 of our era, under the flourishing dynasty of Tang. This was the golden age of Chinese literature. The poet Tou-fou, his *confrère*, is the only one to be compared with him, and such is their joint popularity, that their portraits and their stanzas adorn alike the walls of palaces and the poorest dwellings ; they recur again and again on their verandahs, their fans, their porcelain, and the lapse of ten centuries has not been sufficient to obliterate a renown of which there are few such enduring examples. Significant dreams and signs of strange portent are said to have attended the nativity of Li-pé ; and he grew in beauty so fast, and displayed such astonishing precocity of genius and wisdom, that when only ten years old he was awarded the flattering appellation above quoted, of ‘*the Immortal exiled to the Earth*.’ In order to render that exile supportable, he amused himself in after days by roaming over his native mountain ranges, occasionally resting wherever the wine possessed sufficient quality to fix for awhile his errant habits. His genius, however, was not to be repressed or concealed ; yet he was with difficulty induced to abandon his fugitive and sottish ways, or aspire to the honours and distinctions of public life. As literature is in China the great passport to promotion, from the highest offices in the state to the lowest, his singular talents soon forced him onwards to royal favour and the luxuries attendant on a court life. First he was pressed to take office as a minister of state ; but he preferred, he said, being the favoured companion of his sovereign without worrying himself with business. Gold, and diamonds, and the precious white jade were then presented to him, but were all refused with the same placid indifference. For a time

all went well : he drank, sang songs, and his fancies were pandered to in the palace of 'the golden spires.' He was clothed in the violet robes and gauze turban restricted to the wisest and most learned of the emperor's councillors. But the restless spirit of envy and intrigue, never dormant in despotic courts, raised its malefic and bewildering crest, and his enemies succeeded in poisoning the mind of the empress against all the fascinations of the gifted poet. The more generous monarch, after a hard fight for his petted favourite, was induced to dismiss him from his presence, although not without ample rewards, and assurances of protection and undiminished esteem.

Under this cloud of royal caprice the sage resumed his wanderings ; and exercising the powers with which an imperial missive had invested him, he chastised the insolence of oppressive governors, redressed the grievances of the people, and, above all, was indefatigable in securing for himself an indefinite quantity of the very best wine the neighbouring districts or private stores could afford. After the suppression of a provincial rebellion, and surmounting the attendant difficulties and perils to himself, he was once more summoned to the capital, his star was again in the ascendant, and state employment forcibly thrust upon him. But neither professorships nor dignified offices were to his taste ; the formalities of court etiquette oppressed him ; the business of life with him was merrily to pass the bottle ; and any thing which interfered with this joyous vocation was, in his eyes, a frivolous breach of privilege, and an inexcusable misuse of time. To escape such listless misery he soon quitted the court, and set out on a visiting tour to the lakes and rivers of the principal provinces, in the course of which, Chinese legends say, 'the Immortal Exile' was recalled to his native heaven.

The apotheosis of Li-tai-pé, now in his 60th year, was truly near at hand, and a triumphant assumption awaited him. Whilst supping one still evening on board his barge under the brilliant light of a full moon, harmonious voices from ærial spirits filled the air with their lays. Enormous whales convulsed the waters with their gambols, and crowded round the boat ; whilst two angelic beings, carrying banners in their hands, appeared before him with a summons to take his place among the divine hierarchies above. The vessel's crew crouched for a moment in speechless terror ; but when they looked again, they saw the poet, seated on the back of one of these miraculous whales, rise together with the celestial escort through the clouds, and disappear among his native stars. The wondrous tale soon reached the precincts of the palace. By the emperor's command a stately temple was erected on the banks of the river, and perpetual sacrifices were decreed in honour of the new deity.

The fable became attractive enough to engage the talent of the potter. Those quaint pieces of porcelain, representing a man astride upon a grotesque-shaped fish, are understood to depicture the gifted bard as he was last seen on his departure from earth. It might not be well to submit this senseless myth to the stern crucible of literal truth ; but there are plain matter-of-fact chroniclers in China as well as in Europe, and their version of the story is, that Li-tai-pé got drunk, tumbled into the canal, and was drowned.

In a neat memoir of this remarkable person contained in the *Nouveau Biographie Générale*, it is further stated that when Li-pé's fame had won for him the imperial favour, there were already resident at court eight other poets, who were as much distinguished by their convivial and intemperate habits as by their bardic talent. They were known as *the eight sages of the bottle*, and Li-tai-pé gladly presided over their frequent revels. This, however, was not to continue for ever, and on his subsequent dismissal from court Li-pé is said to have led for several years a truly vagabond life, choosing the mountains and glens for an abiding place, whence his lyrical effusions were rapidly diffused and welcomed throughout the whole empire. At length a wealthy mandarin, enamoured of his flowing verse, sought him out, and prevailed on Li-pé to make his mansion his future home. There he resided a considerable time, and finished by finding himself compromised in a treasonable plot against his former patron and benefactor. As the full penalty of a capital offence could hardly be exacted in the case of one so eminent and popular as Li-tai-pé, he was dismissed in disgrace to his former state of isolation and exile. But despotic power is ever erratic, and imperial clemency soon interposed in his behalf ; his offence was condoned, and, recalled with distinction to court, he was on his way by canal to the capital when the untoward incident occurred that suddenly deprived his country of one of its brightest luminaries.

Although, as we have seen, Li-tai-pé was a person of no ordinary character, his works have heretofore been unknown to Europe. Such unmerited oblivion exists, it may be said, no longer, and a French version of the best poetry of the time of the Tang dynasty, recently published by the marquis d'Hervey-Saint-Denys, will be read with equal interest and pleasure. Notwithstanding his epicurean temperament and habits, Li-pé was far from being a materialist in principle. A facile philosophy, and the worship of the maxim *fruere presenti*, is, in effect, the salient feature of his inspirations, and in his verses there fre-

quently recur passages instinct with delicacy and sensibility. The following sonnet, extracted from the source above referred to, favourably illustrates the special ideality of the poet, as well as the sparkling diction of his idyllic verse.

“La vie est comme un grand songe ;
 À quoi bon tourmenter son existence ?
 Pour moi, je bois tout le jour,
 Et le soir venu, je m'endors au pied des premières colonnes.
 “ À mon reveil j'ai jeté les yeux devant moi,
 Un oiseau chantait au milieu des fleurs ;
 Je lui demande à quelle phase de l'année nous sommes,
 À celle répond-il, ‘Où le souffle du printemps fait chanter l'oiseau.’
 “Je me sens ému ; des soupirs oppressent déjà ma poitrine ;
 Mais aussitôt je remplis ma coupe,
 Je chante, comme l'oiseau, jusqu'à ce que la lune brille,
 Et à l'heure où finit ma chanson, j'ai de nouveau perdu le
 sentiment de ce qui m'entoure.” *Poésies du Siècle des Tang.*

Since such roistering days of unlimited indulgence, the vine in China has undergone many adverse mutations. Influenced by a desire to repress intemperance, its extirpation was decreed by successive rulers, and so pertinaciously enforced, that in the mandates issued from time to time for uprooting all trees and plants encumbering the ground newly appropriated to agriculture the vine was never omitted, until the grape became well-nigh forgotten. It can be matter of little wonder that the absolute prohibition of a favourite beverage sullenly submitted to, and a conviction common in every corner of the land that a pleasant and cheerful stimulant was essential both for hospitality and comfort, should have induced an urgent desire for some means of obtaining an adequate substitute. Nor were suitable means of indulgence long withheld from an inventive and ardent people. In a country so extensive as China, where the art of distillation was known far anterior to the date of any authentic records, and abounding in all the varieties of fruit that grow in other parts of the world, what, in the hands of so ingenious a people, might not be the variety of vinous and appetizing liquors obtainable to grace the tables and invigorate the frame of the luxurious in that remote and secluded region? Wines from the palm-tree, from rice and from millet, liqueurs

and conserves from various fruits, ardent spirits from grain of several kinds, were soon made to yield up their richer latent properties, and contentment again waved its cheerfulness over the extensive community.

In their social intercourse the Chinese are frank and convivial. They take wine with each other, and then reverse the cup to show that they have drained its contents,—with them a mark of etiquette and polite breeding. Their rice-wine, called *sam-su*, is always taken hot, and is poured by an attendant from a silver vessel like a coffee-pot. Gambling and drinking prevail extensively among the lower orders of the people; and although intoxication is not unfrequent, or even thought disgraceful, that vice, it would appear, forms no prominent part of their general character. This jovial propensity of early Chinese society did not escape the notice of the shrewd eastern pioneer Marco Polo, who, in the narrative of his sojourn in Cathay in the first decade of the 13th century, thus bears testimony to the potency of the native alcoholic drinks in his day: “Here they make wine out of rice, and right good stuff it is; but being very hot, it makes one drunk sooner than any other wine.”

Before distillation fermented liquor is simply called *tchoo*, or wine; afterwards the prefix *sau*, or *sam*, is added, to indicate its hot or fiery nature. A further product is distilled from the lees of wine, as well as from grain direct, known in Europe as *raki*, or *arrack*, which is manufactured on a large scale throughout the empire. Its strength is generally over-proof, and it is free from the empyreumatic taint so often perceptible in European spirits. But the skill of the Chinese in working the still is not confined to the production of brandy-spirit from rice or millet alone; for besides their distillations from various fruits, a very pungent extract is drawn from the flesh of sheep. The use of this liquor was first introduced by the Tartars, whose fondness for the repasts afforded by the flocks of their native wilds, induced them to subject their flesh to the action of the still. A wine, also of a very peculiar nature, is said to be prepared by fermenting the flesh of lambs either reduced to a kind of paste with the milk of their domestic animals, or bruised to a

pulpy substance with rice, and known as *lamb-wine*. It is said to be very strong and nutritious, and the Tartars delight to get drunk with it. Such repulsive preparations, however, although considered as not unworthy of emperors, were never much in favour with the native race. Nor should it be regarded as a practice solely confined to the morbid tastes of the Chinese, since we find recorded in the *Treasures of Evonymus*, already referred to, (p. 151), elaborate directions for the employment of "waters distilled of beastes; a water distilled of the flesh of the he-goat, of whelpes, of capons, of the storke, the pye, of frogges, crabs, snayles, pismires or cnuts, the blood of a ducke," and the inward parts, and even the excrements, of various other animals, as medicaments applicable to many diseases which the human frame is heir to.

The impolitic restrictions from time to time imposed on the production of the more wholesome beverage obtainable from the juice of the grape, not only failed in promoting a higher degree of social sobriety and morality, but impelled the recourse to a still more potent and injurious inebriant, and finally led to an irrepressible craving for the fascinating yet deadly influences of intoxication from the fumes of opium, so prevalent throughout the East, and so largely consumed in China.

The poppy is so called from its being commonly mixed with the *pap* given to children to ease pain and induce sleep, and is indigenous to most countries. Its juice is called *afioun* in Persia, and by the Arabians *aphium*, whence our word opium. "It was by the Moslem," observes Chardin, an eminent French savant, "about the tenth century that the juice of the poppy was first carried into China, and at the era of the Conquest, A.D. 1644, they took large supplies of opium with them across the Great Wall."—"This drug is taken in different ways, and its effects vary according to the constitution and temperament of the individuals by whom it is used. Some it inspires with grand and sublime ideas; others with voluptuousness or despondency. The ambitious man beholds at his feet crowned monarchs and slaves in chains; the bilious man is seized with visions of horror and dismay; the mild and benevolent man sees all the world applaud him; while the timid is endowed with courage, the lover with tenderness, and the vindictive with ferocity. In some places it is taken in pills, in others smoked with tobacco.

Within an hour or less after being taken, the drug begins to operate, presenting a thousand pleasing scenes to the imagination, and causing them to appear exceedingly joyous. When the effect has subsided, their spirits are exhausted, and they grow pensive and melancholy until the dose is repeated, habit rendering it so necessary to many, that they cannot exist without a continuous supply."—MOREWOOD'S *Essay on Inebriating Liquors*.

For more than a century the consumption of this narcotic made little progress, being studiously checked by heavy fiscal imposts, and restricted to medicinal purposes only; but so rapid was its after developement, that whilst the importation by the year 1767 did not exceed 200 packages annually, the Chinese in 1867 drew from India alone the enormous quantity of ten million pounds, in addition to a vast and growing home production, and an irrepressible contraband trade estimated at 25 per cent. on the importations.

In the tributary states of COCHIN-CHINA and TONQUIN grapes are grown in abundance; they do not appear to be much employed for conversion into wine, arrack being there the favourite inebriant. The JAPANESE, like other orientals, prepare a variety of stimulating drinks, and distil spirits from rice or wheat, and a very palatable wine is made from various native fruits. They also tap the palm, birch, and other trees, and manufacture from the juice agreeable beverages with very considerable judgment and skill.

AUSTRALIA,

that land of more than golden dreams, a true El Dorado, became early ambitious of viticultural fame; her people were energetic and persevering in their endeavours to secure within the confines of their own territory the beneficent properties of the thirst-slaking grape, and for upwards of forty years past vineyards were assiduously nurtured and multiplied. No portion of this extensive region as yet under tillage has proved inimical to vine culture; and whilst the future is still more promising both for Victoria and South Australia, the credit of its first adoption is mainly due to the earlier operations of the elder settlement of Sydney, where in the lands that stretch

rom Beechworth to distant Albury the finest vineyards abound, and whose productive powers appear to be very considerable. The success of numerous experiments, extending through several years, confirmed the expectation that the vine had found in the antipodes a new home, with a clime and soil fully adequate to the reproduction of the most useful if not the highest qualities of the grape ; but for its subsequent rapid extension and fuller developement the high palm of merit must be awarded to the untiring energy and enterprise of Mr. James Busby, who, in 1831, embarked for Europe, not only to procure an ample supply of vine-roots most suitable for the climate and soil of a distant land, but to acquire by inquiry and investigation a practical knowledge of the culture and treatment of 'the vine and its fruit,' as pursued in the foremost wine-countries of the western Continent. In the course of his lengthened journey he secured select cuttings from the vines of Jerez and Malaga, in Spain, and other useful varieties from the vineyards of Roussillon, Côte-d'Or, and Champagne, in France, and was fortunate enough to obtain the liberal grant of a couple of plants from each of some 400 or 500 choice species from the Botanical garden of Montpellier, besides 137 others from the gardens of Luxembourg. Of this extensive collection by far the larger portion was successfully reared on his return to the colony. Some ten years subsequently a further movement in this direction was made by sir William McArthur, who stocked the plantation at Camden Park, distant about forty miles from Sydney, with the vines he imported from Germany ; and these arrivals were supplemented from time to time by other species of European origin. Vine-grounds were now formed in quick succession on the banks of the Hunter river towards the north ; whilst in the south direction an industrious colony of German vintagers settled at Albury in the year 1851 : their joint labour and skill were from the first attended with a full measure of success, and the preferable sites on its hills and slopes were rapidly dotted with productive vine-grounds for nearly 150 miles on the borders of the Murray river. As New South Wales is the parent colony, so is Camden Park the mother-vineyard of

Australia ; and as the pioneer and planter of two vast staple interests—wine and wool,—the name of Mc Arthur will deservedly go down to posterity with honour and personal esteem.

Advanced and cheering as the prospects and capabilities of the elder province undoubtedly are, still, if we may judge from its rapid strides in this pursuit of late years, South Australia seems destined to more than share in the future annals of colonial vigneron fame. A warm predilection for vine culture is there said to prevail ; the constant desire to produce superior wine is elevated into earnest and persevering efforts to secure an advance from *better* to *best* ; every cottager with half a rood of vines in his garden strives zealously for improvement, and grudges no labour, either in the acquirement of knowledge or in downright hard work. The consequence is what might have been anticipated from such concentrated feeling and energy : vine-planting in Adelaide has attained great magnitude, the area of cultivation is still annually on the increase, and as vineyards continue to extend on every side, the grape now ranks next to wheat in importance. The main impediment to an equally progressive advance in quality is ascribed to the fact, that the demand is so active, there is no keeping the wine till it is properly matured, and its better properties fully developed.

The fecundity of the vine in Australia, under favourable circumstances, is somewhat surprising. For forty miles round Adelaide the vineyards under culture average at least thirty acres each,—some exceeding a hundred acres, and many claiming fifty. Indeed the whole country round the capital seems formed for the home of those vines which Nature has destined for the production of strong, generous, full-bodied wines. A farm at Clarendon, placed at an elevation of some 700 or 800 feet above the level of the sea, is deserving of mention from the singularly pleasing and extensive view which it commands. On the south, a vine-covered hill towers high above surrounding objects, and appears, as it truly is, a gigantic pyramid of luxuriant verdure. Its sunny slopes and narrow summit are clothed with fruit-bearing shoots, and the dense and waving foliage is unbroken by one barren interval. Eastward, the broad waters of

the neighbouring stream, overhung with projecting crags from the hill-side 200 feet above its level, lend tone and grandeur in harmonious contrast to the magnificent sylvan scene. At Hazlehurst, the delightful residence of Mrs. Frances Clark, a vineyard of three acres was planted, chiefly with the muscatel species. Its growth was vigorous and rapid, and it now presents a dense mass of branch and leaf, enriched with its burthen of sweet fruit. In the lower grounds the vines appear to revel in their own luxuriance, and such a redundancy of vegetation is rarely seen in so limited a space. On a commanding spot a pleasing device was skilfully effected by uniting, with the aid of a central stake, four vines from opposite corners: the branches so readily and intimately entwined as to be soon self-supporting, and finally settling in the form of a capacious and shady arbour, the ripe and juicy clusters can be gathered with admirable facility. In his volume on *South Australia*, Mr. Forster describes the colonial vintages as well suited to the requirements of a warm climate, and free from the noxious adulterations so frequently attending foreign imported wines.

"It may be made," he thinks, "by any person who has the industry to stick a few vine cuttings into the ground, and the common intelligence to express the juice from the grapes when they have grown and ripened. To show the very accidental, simple, and even absurd way in which good wine is sometimes produced, I may mention a circumstance which once occurred to a friend, who related it to me. He was hunting stray cattle in the bush on a hot day, and became very thirsty, not having been able to fall in with water. Coming, towards evening, across a splitter's hut, he called and asked for a drink. The man, who was at home, regretted that he had no water in the house, but asked him if he would take a draught of his wine. As this proposal was only too acceptable under the circumstances, the wine was brought, swallowed, and relished exceedingly. Indeed, the gentleman said it was the best he had ever tasted in his life. Perhaps the exhausted condition to which he had been reduced by his hard day's work might have had something to do with his appreciation of it. Being a vine-grower himself, he asked the man to explain to him the subtle process by which he had been enabled to produce so splendid an article. He was invited into the hut, and directed to a large cask without a lid standing behind the door, which the man assured him was the only utensil

employed in the manufacture. 'Sir,' said he, 'all we did was to put the grapes into that 'ere cask, and never trouble ourselves about them no more ; and when we pulled out the spigot, out comes the wine you have just been drinking of.' And such, in fact, seems to have been the case. The tub had been filled with grapes, from which the juice had escaped as they became heated and broken ; and the process of fermentation had thrown the scum to the top, forming a hard, air-tight crust, which had hermetically sealed the vessel, and prevented the liquor from becoming sour."

The species of vine most generally in favour are the *ver-deilho*, *riesling*, *chasselas*, *shiraz*, *gouais*, *pineau*, and *carbenet* ; but numerous others are imported, and find their several admirers and patrons. Many cultivators are of opinion, that however well adapted for a moister region, neither French nor German stocks are suited to the trying climate of Australia, where the fruit is often injured or scorched by the hot and arid winds of summer. Spanish plants, on the contrary, are of a more hardy constitution, and throw out an exuberant foliage, which serves to shield the fruit from a too powerful sun, and the withering effects of the keen northern blasts. The reputation of the early vintages encountered at first much unmerited censure, from the large quantities of immature wine annually forced into the market by growers of insufficient capital or inadequate cellar-room ; but the importance of giving something like age being now more thoroughly appreciated, large and convenient cellars are continuously on the increase, and good storage is no longer a glaring deficiency. The advantage of this prevision is already apparent in the improved qualities constantly springing up to public notice. A pure riesling, submitted to a scrutiny recently held at the stores of an extensive proprietor, was considered by experienced connoisseurs equal to any Hock procurable in the first European markets ; and a Frontignan, made from dried grapes, was highly commended, being full-bodied, soft, and well-flavoured, of a deep amber colour, transparent and bright as burnished gold. A rich and luscious muscat of Alexandria was further distinguished by a powerful and agreeable aroma ; whilst some of the red table sorts, it was thought, would fairly vie with the higher grades of French Burgundy.

Nor is this all, for the gold-mining denizens of Australia Felix, unwilling to be thought lukewarm or indifferent to this pastoral pursuit by the promulgation of numerous instances of successful culture within a radius of some six or seven miles of Melbourne, redoubled their exertions in the pursuit of vigneron excellence and repute. On the heights of Hawthorn, on the slopes and undulations of South Yarra and Boroondara, at Heidelberg, at Flemington, and at Brighton, rows upon rows of vines spread their leafy charms, yielding year by year an increasing harvest of delicious fruit. At South Yarra a season's crop from a plantation of six acres, when ten years under cultivation, was nearly twelve tons, all of which found ready sale for table use. A vineyard $12\frac{1}{2}$ acres in extent, belonging to Mr. Gordon of Brighton, is also in a very flourishing and productive state. Here the soil of two-thirds of the area is a rich alluvium to a depth of eighteen inches, covering a stratum of gravel of equal thickness, beneath which runs a bed of stiff clay. From this estate, besides sending a large quantity of grapes to market, the proprietor obtained in one season, so early as 1863, 1,500 gallons of wine, one half of which was white Tokay. From refuse grapes, stalks, and other waste a brisk beverage is derived called *piquette*, which is most acceptable to work-people, and indeed to any thirsty persons in the heat of summer; and a small quantity of brandy is distilled from the rejected pulp of the crushing-press. Other cases of prosperous cultivation might be quoted, but sufficient perhaps has been stated to demonstrate, that whatever may be in due course of time the vinous guerdon of Australasia for other and distant parts of the world, she is in a fair way of satisfactorily providing for the need and comfort of her own increasing and opulent population. At most hotels, taverns, and wine-dealers', it readily sells at 30s. to 40s. per doz., or at 1s. the tumbler-glass, according to age and quality or popular preference.

Victoria is reputed to have obtained its first instalment from the vine-grounds of Camden Park, and the earliest plantation was laid down in the Geelong district, to which additions were made from time to time by further imports from France,

Portugal, and Spain. Eastward of Geelong, the first and most productive district lies in the vicinity of Sunbury. The vineyards there are all raised on a volcanic trap soil, some resting on the slopes of a hill of moderate elevation, and others trained on the level. The rapid strides made in viticulture since 1862 are remarkable. One of the largest plantations in Australia claims this locality as its home, and after its formation successful vine-growing sprung up around it in many directions. Upwards of 300 acres are devoted to this industry within a radius of fifteen miles, and standing well back from the sea-board, and sheltered from fluctuating changes of temperature, the wines here grown are remarkable for their mellow fulness. The marvellous gold discovery in 1853 gave a heavy blow to vigneron enterprise in Victoria, owing to the great scarcity of labour, and to the high prices which grapes, in common with all other produce, at that period commanded. On the restoration of a more normal equilibrium, new grounds were opened and vineyards sprung up in the districts of Sunbury and Sandhurst, at Riddell's Creek, and along the Murray and Ovens rivers.

According to colonial statistics, in 1855 there were 274 acres only under cultivation, which produced 11,000 gallons of wine. In the year 1865, 4,078 acres were under culture, on which 8,199,618 vines were planted, which produced 176,959 gallons of wine, and 18,063 cwt. of grapes. By the year 1872 the area of culture had extended to 5,523 acres, on which were planted 9,671,292 vines, producing 713,609 gallons of wine, in addition to 30,896 cwt. of table fruit.

In New South Wales, in 1863, there were 1,459 acres of vine-ground, which produced 144,888 gallons of wine, and 420 tons of table grapes. The year 1867 held 2,281 acres under culture, yielding 242,183 gallons of wine, and 668 tons of grapes, increased in 1872 to 4,152 acres under culture, realizing 413,325 gallons of wine, and 508 tons of grapes for the general market, with a surplus of 607 acres of young unproductive plants.

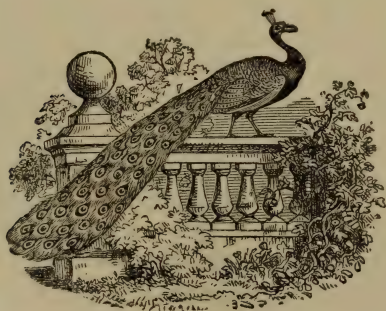
The returns for South Australia further show, that whilst in the year 1850, 282 acres only were under cultivation, in 1860 they had increased to 3,180 acres, on which 1,874,751 vines were bearing fruit, and 1,948,510 barren, from which 182,087 gallons of wine were obtained, and 23,398 cwt. of table grapes; by 1864-5 the number of acres had

increased to 6,364, on which 6,586,000 vines were bearing, and 2,831,971 unproductive, when 798,647 gallons of wine and 30,627 cwt. of grapes were secured. The year 1871 records the further progress in this branch of agricultural industry, when the acres under culture amounted to 6,131, with 5,783,674 vines in bearing, and 385,084 barreners, from which 801,694 gallons of wine were produced, besides 85,847 cwt. of grapes for the table.

On comparison of the several figures here given, it will be seen that the colonies of South Australia and Victoria far outvie the parent province of New South Wales, the former standing foremost as the zealous promoter of the wine-movement at the antipodes. The wines there produced in so much abundance develop a fair amount of alcoholic strength, and need little or no admixture of adventitious spirit for their preservation, which would only tend to deprive them of any fine or subtile properties derived from special influences of climate or soil. The common recourse to fortification is at present the worst feature in their character, and can hardly be justified by similar practices in respect of the better produce of Spain, Portugal, or the south of France. Vine-growing has become a very profitable branch of agricultural industry, and may reasonably be expected, with the growth of population, to present an annual augmentation. It does not limit its reward to the capitalist, but amply remunerates the man of small means who possesses the requisite energy and skill to enter upon it ; for one man with occasional assistance, or the help of his own household, can conduct the culture of eight or ten acres of vine-ground. Satisfactory and encouraging as these facts may appear, it must in candour be admitted that time is still requisite for fully stamping this novel colonial produce with those properties which alone can confer on it permanent reputation and commercial value. The richest productions of Nature cannot be improvised. Step by step, and by slow degrees alone can these laudable efforts rise towards the fulness of perfection ; and as the onward progress here is marked with constant improvement in the chief qualities that distinguish the higher order of excellence,—body, flavour, and durability, the vintages of Australia can hardly fail to arrive at a highly gratifying result. As the

climate is well suited to the growth of the grape, its culture, in the hands of an active and prosperous people, may be destined at no distant period to become of considerable social and commercial import.

It may not be altogether foreign to our subject to notice, in conclusion, the singular structure and properties of the *rata*, or vine-tree, which abounds so freely in the verdant woods of New Zealand. This curious vegetive phenomenon modifies itself by an aggregation of thickly strewn wild vines, and receives its first support from a neighbouring tree. Gradually encircling the friendly trunk with its pliant tendrils and shoots, it soon, by its constrictive embrace, crushes out the heart of the foster parent, now in vain demanding space for the healthy expansion of its own growth. Finally uniting bodily together, the compact mass constitutes one solid tree, with every element of bark sap and stem, root branch and leaf, like to others of less eccentric origin. The wood of the *rata* is by far the toughest grown in the antipodes, and though largely used by the millwright and engineer for the teeth of multiplying gear, it is so little esteemed for other purposes as to be devoted chiefly to colonial fire-stoves, which consume many tons weekly.





SECTION XVII.

“ There grows no vine
By the haunted Rhine,
By Danube or Guadalquiver ;
Nor an Island or Cape
That bears such a grape
As grows by the Beautiful River.

“ Very good in its way
Is the Verzenay,
Or the Sillery, soft and creamy ;

“ But Catawba wine
Has a taste more divine,
More dulcet, delicious, and dreamy.

“ And the richest and best
Is the wine of the West
That grows by the Beautiful River ;
Whose sweet perfume
Fills all the room
With a benison on the giver.”

Longfellow.

The Wines of America.

WERE anything needed to prove the universality of the gift of the vine to man, its presence on the discovery of the New World will amply testify to the unrestricted bounty of the supreme Giver. Although it has hitherto attracted little attention or celebrity, wine is produced in much abundance both on the north and south continent, from indigenous as well as transplanted varieties. Cartier, a French navigator, in the narrative of his first voyage up the river St. Lawrence, states that “they came to an island situate at the mouth of a river, to which he gave the name of St. Croix, (since known as the St. Charles). When they landed and explored the island, they were astonished at the abundance of the vines, and the fineness of the grapes which grew upon it,” which induced him to call it the Isle of Bacchus : this was afterwards changed for that of the Isle of Orleans, a name it still retains. Captain Cartier was the first discoverer of Canada, and an account of his expedition was published at Paris in the year 1545 ; but the book afterwards became so exceedingly rare, that only one copy was known to exist. Being thus inaccessible to all modern writers on the subject, but little

came down to us respecting that important voyage. The work, however, has been recently reprinted, and an extract may possess some value, as conveying the earliest notice we appear to have of the use of tobacco. After describing the productions of the soil the author proceeds,—“They have also a herb, of which they make great stores during summer for the winter, which they esteem much, and the men use it in the manner following :—

“They dry it in the sun, and carry it hung to their neck in a small animal’s skin instead of a bag, with a pipe of stone or wood; and whenever they please, they reduce the said herb to powder, and put it in one end of the said pipe, and then put a lighted coal upon it, and suck at the other end till they fill their body with smoke, so that it comes out by their mouth and nostrils as by the flue of a chimney; and they say that this keeps them sound and warm, and they never go anywhere without these things. We have tried the same smoke, and after having put it in our mouth, it seemed as if we had taken pepper, it was so hot.” A further quotation on this subject, taken from a tract preserved in the *Harleian Miscellany*, will not be without its interest :—“M. Thevet did first bring the seed of tobacco into France, though Nicot, the French ambassador in Portugal, (from whom it is called *nicotiana*,) was the first that sent the plant itself into his own country, Hernandes de Toledo having supplied Spain and Portugal with it before. Sir Francis Drake got the seed in Virginia, and was the first that brought it into England, though some give sir Walter Rawleigh the honour of it; since which time it has thriven very well in our English soil, being planted in great plenty in Devonshire, Gloucester, and some other western counties, her Majesty sending every year a troop of horse to destroy it, lest the trade of our American plantations should be incommoded thereby. . . . There are various manners of using it: some Americans will mix it with a powder of shells to chew it, salivating all the time, which they fancy does refresh them in their journeys and labours; others in New Spain will daub the ends of reeds with the gum or juice of tobacco, and setting them on fire, will suck the smoke to the other end. The Virginians were observed to have pipes of clay before ever the English came there, and from those barbarians we Europeans have borrowed our mode and fashion of smoking. The Scots and Irish do most commonly powder their tobacco and snuff it up their nostrils, which some of our Englishmen do, who often chew and swallow it. I know some persons that do eat every day some ounces of tobacco with-

out any sensible alteration ; from whence we may learn that use and custom will tame and naturalize the most fierce and rugged poison, so that it will become civil and friendly to the body."

"It has been well observed, that no river navigation can surpass the beauty of the St. Lawrence through its 'thousand isles' and the rapids in the passage between Kingston and Montreal. The 'thousand isles' as a name may sound like exaggeration, but it does not rise to the actual truth. The islets are even more numerous, and nothing can be imagined more rich in varying beauty than their rocks and sloping greenswards as they are washed by the passing currents. The woods and bosky knolls that cover them, the old trees and saplings, seem to exult in their exuberant foliage and loveliness as you gaze upon them. Some of the islands are of sufficient extent to admit of edifices being erected on them, but they are of all grades in dimension, and of all forms in their outline. The sunken rocks in the main stream, however, are numerous, which renders the navigation dangerous without the guidance of an experienced pilot ; whilst the course down the rapids, where the waters foam and rage in resistless force over the huge boulders on either side, is at first sight repelling, and how safely to glide through such a flooded chaos no eye can see or mind conceive, except that of an oft-tried and fearless passenger. The sensations commonly felt on first darting through the surging element are new, bewildering, and not easily forgotten.'

The wild vines on the Ohio attain a prodigious size, the trunks of some of them being from seven to ten inches in diameter, with luxurious branches pendant some sixty or seventy feet from the tops of the tallest tenants of the forest. Vines trained on mulberry and sassafras trees formed a feature in the scenery of Delaware in 1648 ; and in the year 1683 William Penn planted a vineyard in the vicinity of Philadelphia. Some French colonists having in 1769 succeeded in obtaining 100 hogsheads of serviceable wine from a wild American grape, attention has since been uniformly directed to the native plant as the only one suitable to wine-making, experience having demonstrated the utter failure of every attempt to make good wine in America from stocks imported from Europe.

The seaboard, generally, of the United States, from its low winter temperature, and the humidity of both soil and atmosphere, is unfavourable to vine culture ; but on the settlement of

the lands lying to the west of the Alleghany mountains, it was found that the grape might be there grown with a fair prospect of success, and a palatable red wine was made from native fruit towards the end of the last century, when some Swiss settlers cultivated the vine in the states of Ohio and Indiana with considerable address. The crop in 1811 furnished 2,700 gallons from a vineyard only planted in 1805, and is said to have resembled Bordeaux in quality. About the same period, enterprising efforts were made to establish vine culture on a still larger scale on the river Kentucky, but the experiment being unattended with commensurate results, it was for a time abandoned as hopeless. The cause of the failure has not been fully determined, but it is perhaps justly ascribed to undue moisture, occasioned by the excessive rain-falls that periodically occur between the months of April and October.

The cultivation of the vine was an object of early solicitude to the first colonists of North America, and its gradual developement has been followed up with considerable energy and success. The earliest vineyards of any extent were those planted by German settlers, who were impressed with a belief that only hill-sides with a southern aspect were suited for vine-growing, and that the best vineyards could only be raised from the planting of long cuttings in the spot where the vine was permanently fixed ; and this practice continued to be the rule in Cincinnati, and some parts of Missouri. Wine is now made in almost every State of the Union, but the native vines generally prove defective in the saccharine element. The richest in this respect is the *scuppernong*, a favourite plant in the southern States, but the wine made even from this species requires to be sweetened by the admixture of syrup or honey, and to be strengthened by the addition of spirit to counteract a presumptive deficiency of alcohol. The indigenous stocks appear to have their geographical limits, for the *scuppernong* will not ripen north of Virginia, nor the *fox* grape of the north thrive in the lower parts of Carolina and Georgia. "When at Charleston," writes the author of *A Visit to the Confederate States*, 1863-64, "some fruit was brought in at lunch, which I

began to eat, saying ‘What delicious gooseberries!’ when I was informed that I was not eating gooseberries at all, but grapes—scuppernong grapes, an indigenous fruit of the country, from which a capital wine is made. They have a hard skin, rather hairy, and grow sometimes singly, or in bunches of two or three, like cherries. One of the most striking features in the forests is the enormous wild vines, which twine luxuriantly round the larger trees.”

Upwards of thirty varieties of the grape are now raised in the different States, being for the most part white, and closely resembling each other. In one important particular they have all been found to differ from the vines of Europe; viz. that pruning appears to produce no beneficial effect on the fruit; and when left to their natural growth, they are more productive than under artificial training, however skilful or scientifically applied. It was not until the year 1826 that the *catawba*, America’s native grape, was found by major Adlum growing spontaneously in a garden at Georgetown, near Washington, who thought that, in making the discovery, he was conferring a greater benefit on his country than if he had liquidated the national debt. This fertile variety has gradually supplanted all others, and for wine purposes is almost universally adopted throughout the United States. It gives a very peculiar musky flavour to the wine, displeasing indeed to many when first tasted; but the dislike is quickly subdued by use, and it is much relished in Missouri, where it sells readily at prices that would be deemed exorbitant in the wine-countries of Europe. Numerous other wild varieties are known in the States: some of them may one day rival the *catawba*, which at one time was almost the only grape grown on a large scale for wine. The banks of the Ohio are studded with vineyards, many hundred acres being planted in the immediate vicinity of Cincinnati, with every probability of a further developement; and it is a curious fact, that even so far to the north-west as the Red river, the special notice of a recent English traveller was directed to a vine in the vicinity of lake Vermillion, which covered a tree twenty-five feet high, and entwined all its numerous branches.

In Pennsylvania, Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana, Tennessee, Arkansas, and in full two-thirds of the western States, plantations of more or less promise and extent have been formed, whilst the vineyards of Missouri, which enjoys the advantage of longer seasons, a warmer climate, and more suitable soil than other regions, promise to become not only the most prolific of many of the States, but also a fertile source of the best wines. It is to California, however, we must look for the highest powers of production, which within the last decade has moved forwards with gigantic strides. Rich in the acquisition of the best vine-stocks of European origin, the area of vineyard cultivation covers an immense surface of congenial land, the present annual vintage exceeding 2,300,000 gallons of wine of satisfactory quality. During the year 1873 her exports amounted to 100,097 gallons of wine, of which 38,657 were shipped for Europe.

The system of viticulture varies in different States. In some counties the grapes are trained trellis-wise, whilst in others they are fastened to stakes 6 or 7 feet high, at distances from $3\frac{1}{2}$ by 4 feet to as much as 12 feet by 12, to accommodate the luxuriant foliage, and the large space requisite for their branching off-shoots. Vinification in most localities is susceptible of improvement. In some cases the growers make their own wine; in others, the grapes are bought up by trading wine-companies, whose operations are often conducted on a grand scale, in accordance with prevailing transatlantic notions. Their stores comprise immense galleries, 200 feet in length by 80 broad, divided into three storeys, the ground-floor retaining the presses, six or more in number. The grapes on arrival are thrown into a basket running along rails, whence they are conveyed to the balance-table, weighed, paid for, and placed into a vast *cuvée*, where by means of an apparatus they are transferred to a machine, which slightly presses them and removes the stalks. The juice is conducted by pipes to the fermenting vats, and the mash descends to the ground-floor to receive the action of the wine-press. Only six hours are occupied in pressing three tons of mash, and such is the rapidity of the process, that in six minutes a ton of grapes can be received, weighed, crushed, the

juice transferred to the fermenting vats, and the mash prepared for pressing. The smallest cellars of these establishments can store 50,000 gallons, frequently as many as 350,000 gallons.

Whether American growths will ever become an important article of export, must depend mainly on the price at which they can be shipped ; but the home market is already so vast and active, that many years will probably elapse before wine will be raised in sufficient quantities to turn the current of trade, and convert the Columbian communities into exporters of an article which has hitherto been supplied to them chiefly from abroad. Commercial activity, however, is already on the alert to anticipate such a possibility, and the summer of 1864 witnessed the first consignment of fresh-grown native grapes from New York to London. Since that period vine-culture has been pursued with increasing ardour. For the year 1874, the wine output in the United States was estimated at 20,000,000 gallons, and the market value at \$14,000,000, contributed in the following proportions :—California, 5,000,000 gallons ; Ohio, 3,500,000 ; New York, 3,000,000 ; Missouri, 2,500,000 ; Illinois, 2,500,000 ; Pennsylvania, 2,000,000 ; Iowa, 400,000, and so downwards.

Distillation in the United States is also making great progress, and has already become an important item of commerce, the quantity, as shown by an official statement, from fruit distillation in 1870 being 2,199,733 gallons. Of this total, New York made 128,662 ; New Jersey, 411,596 ; North Carolina, 374,790 ; Virginia, 297,317 ; Kentucky, 239,233 ; and California, 136,683 gallons.

Wine, it is known, was long ago made in Louisiana, and in the French colonies of America. In Florida, also, according to the testimony of sir John Hawkins, a considerable quantity, of an agreeable taste, was produced from a native grape as far back as the year 1564 ; and Laudonnière says, in recounting his voyage to Florida in 1562, that the “trees were environed about with vines bearing grapes, so that the number would suffice to make the place habitable.”—“Master Ralph Lane,” the head of the first colony established in Virginia, wrote in 1555, that he had found in that country “grapes of suche great-

nesse, yet wilde, as France, Spaine, nor Italie have no greater," though this, perhaps, savours of a little exaggeration. The island of Cuba rears an abundance of wild grapes; these secrete an acrid taste, but afford a light, cool, sharp wine. The trunks of the vines are there often as large as a man's body, and, with their branches intertwined, extend in thick woods over leagues of surface. In Mexico, where the small wild grape is indigenous, the Spaniards, as early as 1572, introduced the European plant, from which good second-class wine was obtained. As after the Deluge the first vine which elated a human being was planted by a man of God, so it was reserved to men of the Church to give the first impulse towards the production of wine in the New World. This bounty of Nature is no longer in its infancy. Its first appearance in commercial garb in this vale of incessant care dates from the year 1748, when viticulture successfully developed itself as an important industrial pursuit.

"From sunny Spain," writes a local annalist, "the pious monks brought with them the chronic thirst of the cloisters, which in their new home required to be allayed just as well. With this object they first imported a selection of French and Spanish cuttings, which, much to their disappointment, did not satisfactorily thrive. They grew, it is true, but yielded fruit seldom and sparingly. Nothing seemed left for the holy men but the bare prospect of a thirsty future, or the necessity of a costly importation of vinous liquors from the mother country. But chance favoured them, and hope beamed forth once more to comfort the despairing brethren. It happened that a vessel, with the customary freight of periodical supplies, brought out a consignment of fresh Malaga raisins. Of this fruit one of the more hopeful missionaries planted the seeds, and with marvellous success,—resulting, indeed, in the growth of healthy plants, which soon bore most excellent grapes. With aid from the Indian natives, the grateful fathers in due course laid out vine-grounds in Los Angeles on a grand scale. At first, the fruit was raised chiefly for table use, and the grapes continued for several years to be sent for sale to the San Francisco market, till the gradual increase of plantations in the vicinity of [the city furnished a sufficiency for the immediate wants of its inhabitants, when the manufacture of wine at Los Angeles constituted a regular and successful pursuit."

California, where the vine continues to flourish in much

perfection, is now enriched with numerous vineyards, which yield in great abundance both red and white wines, remarkable for their potency. A vast territory, extending the whole length of the State, about 600 miles north and south, and 100 miles in breadth, lying just back from the coast-range of mountains that skirt the Pacific shores from the borders of Mexico to Oregon, is well adapted for vine-culture, under a climate not excelled by that of any country in Europe. Increased attention and scientific labour have of late years been systematically bestowed on its pursuit, with a success beyond the expectations of its most sanguine patrons.

One of the celebrities of Spanish California is the immense and beautiful grape-vine now flourishing at the Montecito, two or three miles below Santa Barbara. This vine owes its origin to a playful impulse from doña Marcellina Feliz Domingues, rather before the year 1780. It appears that this now famous tree was once used by her as a horse-whip during a ride with a chosen gallant, and presented by him at the need of the moment, which on their return was lightly thrust into the garden parterre as a lasting token of her enjoyment and regard. To her amazement and delight it took root, grew to maturity, and gradually spread its branches over an area of more than 5,000 square feet of ground, bearing, before the demise of its founder, more fruit annually than any vinery in all America, north or south. On more than one occasion it ripened over 6,000 bunches of sound grapes, or close upon 8,000 lbs. in weight, much to the surprise and wonder of every denizen or sojourner in that part of the country. And, what is yet more strange to say, for the last thirty years of her life, it constituted the chief maintenance of its foster parent and her somewhat numerous family. By the end of the first half century it had trailed over an area of some eighty yards, with a trunk twelve inches in diameter, and rising a clear eight feet from the ground. In 1870 the stock of this vine in the thickest part measured 4 feet 4 inches in circumference, its branches receiving support from fifty-two trellises; and for a number of successive years it produced an annual harvest of five or six tons, or from ten to twelve thousand

pounds of well-ripened grapes. It is estimated that in the course of the last sixty years its total yield fell little short of the enormous weight of half-a-million pounds of fruit, which, reckoning at five centimes per pound, would be equivalent to 25,000 dollars.

At Cincinnati and St. Louis large quantities of sparkling wine are made in imitation of Champagne, which, under the name of 'sparkling Catawba,' sells freely at four shillings the bottle. It goes through exactly the same complicated process, and with as much care, as in France, which will serve to account for the high price. The Catawba somewhat resembles Rhenish wine in appearance, and is of the same light straw colour; but it has the peculiar musky flavour above adverted to, and more body. The State of New York produces the Isabella, another favourite vintage, which with the Catawba divides the public favour. These wines are quite distinct in character from any of European origin, and are said to exceed in delicacy and flavour every other growth. They are not rich in alcohol, containing, in fact, the smallest percentage of spirit of any wine in the world. Looking to quantity alone, the region most productive is California, where, more than a century since, the preparation of wine was carefully superintended by the missionaries from the mother-country; but in character it is less pure and wholesome than the wines of Ohio.

SOUTH AMERICA abounds in vineyards. Wine formerly was made in Paraguay, but it was forbidden to be manufactured in the Brazils during the sovereignty of Portugal in that colony. In La-Rioja, a province of the Argentine States, the vine and the olive thrive with equal luxuriance on the low hilly range around Chilecito. Vines are also grown at numerous places between Buenos Ayres and Mendoza: they are remarkably productive, and bear fine fruit wherever the owners take the necessary trouble with the cultivation. The clusters of grapes are remarkably fine and rich, and are interwoven with the pear, apple, and peach in the most luxuriant manner,—all in great perfection. Excellent secondary wines are made at Mendoza, at the base of the Andes, which form an article of considerable

traffic with Buenos Ayres, a thousand miles distant across the Pampas. They are transported, even during the summer heats, and so far from spoiling, they prove all the better for the journey. The wine is not carried in skins, which so taint and disqualify the produce of some districts in the mother-country, but is conveyed in small barrels slung on each side of a mule, and the quantity thus sent is considerable. A sweet kind, resembling Malaga, is also made there, for which they suspend the grapes for some time in bunches, to mature after they are gathered. Their wines of the first quality include both red and white sorts, and are held in much esteem, the latter bearing in the United States the price of Madeira. Brandy is also distilled from these wines in considerable quantity.

Mendoza, one of the largest cities of the Argentine Republic, is situated at the foot of the eastern slope of the Cordilleras. Inhabited by a race distinguished for their lively manners and comely proportions—athletic though slender,—the youthful señoras who frequent the evening promenade on the *grande plaza* are said to present to the gaze of the admiring stranger an animated assemblage, graceful as breathing sculpture.* On approaching the suburbs, fields of vineyards and clover greet the eye on every side, and the gardens of the city are filled with some of the best muscatels in the world, both as to size and quality. Several species of grape are there cultivated, including a black variety, as well as the red and white: the vines are not permitted to exceed four feet in height, and the grounds are freely irrigated. Unhappily, this smiling and bountiful aspect was destined to be of no long duration; for on the 20th of March, 1861, the town was visited by an earthquake of unusual intensity, which, overwhelming every building, public or private, reduced in a few brief seconds an extensive city to a mass of shapeless ruins, and is thus touchingly described by the recording pen of a resident sufferer:

“Such was the resistless power, of the volcanic forces, that not a house or church, or even a shed, was left standing more than six feet above the surface of the ground. Out of a population of 12,000 human beings, 10,000 were instantaneously engulfed beneath the yawning

* *Vide* the remarkable tale of *Elsie Venner*, by Oliver Wendell Holmes.

foundations ; and of 2,000 rescued, at least 1,500 sustained grievous injuries from the ponderous materials everywhere falling around them. The streets being narrow and the buildings lofty, the startled tenants, paralyzed with terror and alarm, attempted too late to seek for refuge in the open courts and squares, and the scene that presented itself immediately after the first vibration was intensified and deplorable beyond conception. Situate in a region eminently volcanic, the very heart of the shock must have centred within the town itself. Hoarse subterranean thunders deafened the air ; domestic animals in frantic terror rushed howling through the narrow labyrinths and vacant spaces ; the earth opened, and vomited forth floods of water ; while, to crown the terrors of the night, flames burst from the smouldering wreck, and consumed each upheaved dwelling with its dead, its maimed, and its dying. Six hundred unhappy beings were burnt alive, yet their sufferings, terrible to contemplate as they were, must have been brief and merciful compared with the agony sustained by others, who for sixteen days endured a living tomb beneath the smoking fragments. Broken limbs were among the least deplorable of the calamities encountered ; crushed bones, gorged and lacerated wounds already festering, neglected dislocations, and fractures that were again forcibly wrenched apart before they could be properly reduced, tortured wretches, still alive, with broken backs and injured spines,—sufferings further aggravated by the absence of commensurate surgical aid, and the oppressive heat and miasma engendered by a polluted and tropical atmosphere. There was preaching, too, in the church of the Jesuits that night. The service had just concluded, and the congregation was on the point of dispersing, when, without prelude or monition, the volcanic movement burst full upon them. The few that reached the open air were saved, but the walls and roof falling inwards with a crash, priest and penitent were hurried into eternity together. The massy structure of the city gaol availed nothing ; it shared the common fate, and out of one hundred prison inmates ninety-two perished. The surviving felons, true to their brutal instinct, banded together, and plunder and murder were added to the dismal catalogue of passing evils.”

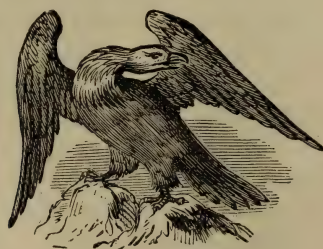
In the annals of time this deplorable catastrophe will find a place among the most remarkable on record : never was destruction more sudden or complete. The western coast in past years had encountered similar minor visitations, Valparaiso, Santiago, and Copiapo each suffering severely ; but it was reserved for Mendoza to encounter the climax of a recurrent and destructive

calamity. A hundred years had passed away since the occurrence of any volcanic eruption at the foot of the Andes, and it was imagined that none would ever pass the mountain range. Impressed with a full sense of the frightful and irresistible force of the unheralded earth-storm, the awe-struck inhabitants of that region for many succeeding months retired each night with a feeling of unmitigated apprehension and insecurity. No precaution, no amount of earthly foresight avails against the mysterious visitor, who comes at dawn, at noon, or midnight in transcendent force, and in a few seconds levels to the ground the proudest monuments of human ingenuity and skill.

The vines of Peru afford delicious grapes of various kinds in the vicinity of Lima, but, from the great demand for table use, little or no wine is made near that city. Those of Chili produce better fruit for wine than Peru, yet as the consumption is small, the vine-grounds in that province are much neglected. The red grape is the most cultivated, and is remarkable for richness and fragrance, the muscatel far exceeding that of Spanish growth, as well in the fruit as in the wine it yields. The vines are trained *en espalier*. Nothing can excel the beauty of some of the clusters of the Chilian grape. A bunch has been gathered so large as of itself to fill a basket, and the trunks of some of the pollard class attain an immense size. The wines manufactured in both provinces are in colour white, red, and purple. Those of Chili are the most approved: the produce of Pisco sells the readiest, and is highly esteemed. In the southern States the olive tree flourishes in extreme profusion, and yields finer oil than in most other countries; but the court of Madrid ever looked with an unfavourable eye on the cultivation of the vine, the olive, and the mulberry; and at one time orders were sent out to uproot the former in the northern districts of Mexico, because the merchants of Cadiz complained of a diminution in the consumption of Spanish wines.

The principal diseases to which the vine is subject in America are rot and mildew. The former is very destructive, especially to the catawba. It usually appears at the latter end of June, after continued heavy rain followed by a hot sweltering sun; it

strikes suddenly with fatal effect, destroying, at times, two-thirds of the crop in a few hours. It is supposed to proceed from an excess of moisture about the roots of the plant, sandy soils with a gravelly substratum being usually exempt from its attacks, especially where there is a thorough circulation of air. The mildew precedes the rot, but has not hitherto proved so fatal as the latter malady. No remedy yet tried has proved successful, and opinions differ widely as to the true nature of the blight,—some maintaining that it is merely a variety of the European *oidium*. That it is caused by a description of fungus, which adheres to and gradually destroys the berry, is not denied ; but whether it is a distinct and wholly American disease, has given rise to a great deal of learned and undecisive controversy. Its ravages in 1858 were very calamitous, as much as two-thirds, and in some instances three-fourths of the crop having been destroyed by the mildew ; but there is not any reason to apprehend that the distemper will assume a permanent or abiding character. In yet more recent years, new and destructive enemies have made their appearance in the form of the *eumolpus vitis* and the *phylloxera vastatrix*, or grape-root gall-louse,—insects that pass the winter season in the earth, and, by their devouring ravages on the roots of the vine, hopelessly impair the vitality of the plant. The mischief already occasioned has extended far and wide, and as no countervailing remedy has yet been discovered, serious apprehensions for the ultimate consequences disturb the faith of earnest vintagers.





SECTION XVIII.

“If Britain mourn her darkness, we can tell her
The very best of vineyards is the cellar.”

Lord Byron.

On the Choice and Preservation of Wine.



HE “generous juice of the grape was doubtless bestowed upon man by his beneficent Creator to impart health and vigour to his physical energies, and a wholesome cheerfulness to his soul ; and if he would wish to avoid enervating the one or brutalizing the other, he will do well to eschew all unsound or vitiated wine, which has ever manifested itself in the ‘living temples’ of its votaries in the character of manifold diseases. ‘Strong drink is raging, and whosoever is deceived thereby is not wise ;’ but *pure* wine upon a *healthy* stomach is grateful and precious as the light of truth and the exercise of discretion to a sound and well-regulated mind.” *

From the earliest ages wine has ever been the solace of mankind ; yet, for a right appreciation and choice, the due exercise of a discriminating and reliable judgment is no easy task, especially to those unacquainted with the nice shades of distinction, or unused to extensive and frequent opportunities of comparison. The difficulty may be stated as twofold : in the first place, no two persons entertain precisely similar notions as to the character of any particular growth ; and, secondly, wines of the same estate will vary with the fluctuations of inconstant seasons. Age, care in storing, or mere accident, may cause a change in the flavour or bouquet of any given vintage sufficient to be clearly perceptible ; and it is not improbable that much of the diversity of taste and judgment proceeds from the way in which

* *Mem. of a Tour in France*, by J. H. Holdsworth, M.D.

the palate has been exercised : thus, fortified wines and strong liquors blunt its sensibility, and disqualify it for the perception of the more delicate rivalry of that which is pure and natural. A person accustomed only to bad or indifferent wines will often form a very erroneous estimate of the better kinds, and sometimes even give the preference to the former. A traveller, on arriving at the end of his journey, exhausted by fatigue and thirst, is apt to ascribe the most delightful properties to the first ordinary wine presented to him, which, under other circumstances, he perhaps would hardly have been induced to tolerate ; and a continued use of the inferior products of one country, might lead him to underrate the vinous gifts of another. Whole nations, indeed, may be occasionally misled by so plausible a prejudice.

Red wines of good quality and well-matured, are more nutritious than the white sorts : they assimilate freely, and combine readily with the ordinary daily food ; they aid digestion, and impart a healthy vigour to the visceral organism ; they are a medicine for the sick, a restorative for the convalescent, a remedy for nausea and fatigue, a prop for the aged. White wines are endowed with analogous virtues, but their constituents being lighter, more volatile, and rapidly defecated, they act promptly on the nervous system, and stimulate a freer action of the urinal organs. In a healthy frame, sound and generous wine excites the imagination, brightens the intellect, kindles cheerfulness, and awakens a communicative amenity. The properties, then, to be looked for as distinctive of good and pure vintages, are absolute unity of taste—even when diluted with water,—combined with fulness of body and alcoholic strength, more or less dependent on the latitude in which they are produced. Wine should, moreover, possess an agreeable vinous—not a vinegary—acetous bouquet, attended with a due proportion of tartarous acidity, which is indispensable for the developement of high quality ; for any vintage deprived of the acid naturally eliminated in fermentation *ceases to be wine*, tastes flat and insipid, impedes, instead of aiding, digestion,—too often resulting from the corruptive addition of a strong alkali, gypsum, or plaster of Paris.

A purchaser of wine should always seek to decide for himself ; yet, as the taste is the chief criterion on which any preference must rest, an unvarying application of so subtle a faculty is a rare gift. Experience combined with frequent usage will best implant on the memory what are the appropriate attributes of eminent growths, and lead the judgment to a correct and satisfactory conclusion. The particular impression of the moment, however, is so liable to be affected by the passing state of bodily health, or by the last substance taken into the mouth, that it is difficult to preserve it unimpaired. Sweet or spiced food eaten some time previously will materially disturb the power of discrimination. Many resort to cheese, but after that convenient provocative, all wines will carry an agreeable relish. This contrariety both of taste and preference among individuals is obvious and proverbial, whilst the difficulty of a clear definition is greatly augmented by the poverty of our language to express suitably the nice distinctions of vigneron character and quality. Even if our nomenclature of tastes were much more copious than it is, the flavour of wines is so varied, and their respective divergence and combinations so numerous, that it would still be a very difficult task to designate them with precision. In most wines, it is true, certain qualities predominate, and these may be readily described, especially when the wine is new. Port, for example, may be termed sweet and astringent ; Rhine produce, austere and thin ; but what words will adequately indicate that peculiar ethereal aroma that distinguishes each of them when fully mellowed by age, and which is only developed by long keeping ? Again, those properties of wine recognised by the organ of smell are equally various and difficult of definition, and are often only apparent after being bottled a number of years. The French and other cultivators have terms for denoting the several properties peculiar to their wines, and although some of them are too idiomatic to be easily available, others are sufficiently expressive for ready comprehension and adoption by the English connoisseur. The words *élégant*, or *brillant*, as applied to the produce of Champagne, require no explanation ; *bouquet* interprets the odour

emitted and easily perceptible when the cork is drawn. In some of the choicest growths it is highly rich and fragrant : it is not a single perfume, and derives the name from this circumstance, arising apparently from a perfect union of several agreeable odours. *Aroma*, again, is applied to their natural and inherent perfume and flavour, or as imparted by the infusion of aromatic or foreign substances ; *délicat* applies to wines both light and spirituous, harmonious in character, but not heady ; *fin* designates wines of high quality that unite the conditions of delicacy, savour, age, and fragrance. *Vélocité* implies full of softness on the palate ; *sève*, the entire flavour of the wine as developed on being swallowed, combining both the spirituous quality and aromatic particles, which are liberated and volatilized as soon as it meets the warmth of the mouth ; *piquant* is applicable both to wines that are very dry, and to those in which the tartrates predominate. *Velouté* means wine of good colour and body, smooth on the palate ; *fumeux* those quickly affecting the head from alcohol, and not from carbonic gas, as with Champagne ; to the latter the term *montant* is applied : *dur* means the sensation produced by a liquid over-charged with tartar and tannin ; *mou*, wines that are viscid and flat ; *vif* is said of wine that is neither sweet nor dry, but well flavoured, bright in colour, and light though spirituous ; *fort* is applicable to vintages coarse, potent, and tonic. *Vins d'entremets* are table wines, taken between the dishes before the dessert ; *plat* signifies when flat from want of innate strength ; *vinades* are small wines, made by adding water to the must, and then pressing it ; mostly consumed by labourers.

In England the influence of fashion is very potential, and whilst it constantly tends to regulate and govern the public taste, no criterion exists for testing the worth of its judgment or caprice. At times, too, the example or eccentricity of a leading person of *ton* will occasion a sort in but little estimation, and perhaps worthless in reality, to become the leading wine of the table for a season. It is this fashion, or accident, and not a true appreciation of vinous excellence, that too often determines a fleeting popularity in favour of some particular growth ; whilst a lurking prejudice is ever active in disparaging and denouncing all articles

of luxury tainted with the ban of vulgar plenty and cheapness. Yet, notwithstanding there is no recognised standard of taste in wines, and popular notions are liable to inconsiderate fluctuation, there are properties essential to good wine, with respect to which most persons will agree. Some like the sweet, others the dry wines; some the light, others the stronger kinds; but no purchaser will choose a flat and insipid vintage in preference to another distinguished by fulness of body and richness of flavour, or overlook the equally indispensable requisites of firmness and durability,—qualities, however, seldom found combined except in first-rate wines, which, being raised in very limited quantities, and often the produce of private estates, sell at high prices, and are attainable with difficulty, whilst their value rapidly augments with age.

“Those who love good wine,” writes Dr. John Wright in his *Essay on Wines*, “and wish to preserve their health, ought to be very careful at first of its nature and quality. The quantity of Port wine imported, *or used as such*, in Great Britain exceeds greatly the aggregate of all other wines; some of it is good, but I may add, without violation of truth, that much of it is beneath mediocrity. It was formerly looked on as a luxury, and when it was used only at the tables of the opulent, this beverage was better; now it is common, and I may venture to assert that above 3,000,000*l.* for red Port are obtained yearly by dealers for what is imported, sophisticated, or made by them. . . . Port wine may be said to be already on the decline,—not for its own nature, but from the treatment it meets with. Of itself, if it had but common justice, it is excellent, and might be sent to us as pure, as elegant, and as pleasant a potation of differing qualities as all the different countries in Europe produce; but merchants hurry so hard for ready return, that it is sent here as soon as possible after it comes from the vats of the vignerons,—nay, much of it is swallowed in England before it is one year old, and before the must hath deposited any of its essential salt.

“It seemeth to me probable, that in case of the failure of Port wine, or indeed were it even to mend, we might yet increase our commerce, and procure a pleasanter supply of more exquisite wines than ever Spain or Portugal,—I had almost said than even France hath hitherto sent us. The Turks begin, like other nations, to emancipate themselves from the fetters of prejudice, and to see their interest through a clearer medium than they did formerly. There are several islands in the Archipelago

that, from the poverty of the people, produce little or no revenue to the government. Is it not probable that the Divan might be easily convinced that if they would plant, or let us plant, some of the Cyclades with vines, and employ their people to make wine, that these uncultivated grounds, lying in the finest climates, with a genial nature and soil, might make them serve as a granary for corn, wine, oil, honey, fruits, &c. the best of their kinds in the world?" This, be it remembered, was written in a kind of prophetic spirit in 1795. Fifty years afterwards these ideas became a practical reality, and the people of this country possess the inestimable boon of access to the purest and most generous natural wine the world can produce. "It may be thought impertinent," he further candidly observes, "to warn all who are in the practice of drinking spirituous liquors, whether in liqueurs, drams, doctor's wine, punch, grog, toddy, bembo, or *materia medica*, that not one man in a thousand can continue it with impunity. The hospitals of the metropolis are awful testimonies of the evils arising from an habitual use of alcoholized liquors, and it would far exceed the limits I here propose, were I to take pains to describe the disorders consequent on their daily use."*

The first object to be sought for in the selection of wine, next to the spontaneous approval of the purchaser, is its purity. Whatever the region that produces it, whatever the class, if it be adulterated with any thing foreign to its natural growth it ought to be rejected. Good wine should be further distinguished by an agreeable taste and proportionate fulness of body, formed of the extractive constituents of the grape. Roughness, or astringency, is another valuable element, and appertains to most red wines. In moderation it is wholesome; in excess it is unpleasant, and may be injurious, whilst a certain amount of tartness is inherent in all wines. The number of hands through which wine usually passes before it reaches the consumer further exposes it to many hazards, whilst the great difference of price between the higher grades and the inferior sorts offers to the unscrupulous dealer many temptations to tamper with their integrity, against which no buyer is wholly secure. Ill-fermented wines, and such as are low in quality, rapidly deteriorate, and become ropy, vapid, acedcent, and worthless: to counteract such tendencies and make

* AN ESSAY ON PORT WINES: intended to instruct every Person to distinguish that which is Pure and to guard against the Frauds of Adulterators, and its Uses in Health or Disease. By John Wright, M.D.

them keep, factitious spirits are more or less freely infused, to the destruction of their true vinous and other inherent properties.

“That such spontaneous changes,” as Dr. Henderson forcibly remarks, “may be in some measure prevented by the introduction of brandy, experiment and the long prevalence of the practice would seem to demonstrate. In endeavouring, however, to check one species of degeneration by such means, we only hasten another; for it is very certain, that when the addition is made after the full fermentation of the must, no perfect incorporation of the two fluids will take place, but the flavour and perfume of the wine will become completely obscured; and the adventitious alcohol combining with the aqueous part of the liquor, will occasion a gradual separation of the extractive and colouring matter, leaving merely a mixture of brandy and water with a slight vinous savour. That this is the case must be evident to every one who has observed the progress of the decomposition incident to inferior Port wines, which can never be said to be in condition, but which, after a certain period, lose what flavour they possessed, and become more or less tawny; while lighter wines, that contain no factitious spirit, remain quite unchanged.”

To distinguish wine that is mixed or blended requires much experience, particularly when of a second or third-rate quality; yet it would not always be possible to drink certain wines, unless they were softened by admixture with others of a kindlier character, although in all other respects they may be excellent. Hermitage, in France, is often added to Claret, in order to strengthen the product of a weaker vintage. Sometimes the grapes do not ripen uniformly, even when of an approved species, and yet the product is sound: with such, better and older wines identical in character are added to the new, and both the taste and the strength are thereby improved. The blendings practised by French merchants have not for their object an imitation of the leading growths of their vineyards, but simply to correct defects in particular samples, or to obtain by this means a quality that will suit the consumer at a price less onerous than that demanded for the finest quality. The difference between good and genuine high-class wines and those so mixed is sometimes such, as to make the latter preferred by those who judge from primary and transient impressions. A superior vintage, when new, commonly retains a certain rawness of taste less pleasing

than one composed of two sorts judiciously combined, and in so commingling their wines the French but adapt their wares to the respective markets. Those sent to England are very different from such as are consigned to Russia, and both are treated differently from those intended for Paris or home use. Hence it arises that visitors to the Continent are often puzzled at not finding there the same peculiarities of flavour and character they have been previously accustomed to. The first growths of Bordeaux drunk in France do not resemble those usually sold in London; the latter contain a dash of the wine of the south of France or Spain, which imparts the difference thus noticed. Genuine French wines at the present day can hardly be said to possess sufficient strength to suit the English palate. This, however, is more the result of habit than any deliberate or well-grounded rejection. In France the ordinary wines are almost always taken at dinner mixed with water. This is done from choice by persons of fortune, and without any eager straining at economy. The finer wines, on the contrary, are almost always taken pure. Ordinarily very little is drunk, and it is delightful to witness the social gaiety, the frankness and mirth that these gentle stimulants invariably engender. People, however, as a rule, generally like best what they are most accustomed to; even national notions are exclusive, and mainly based on national usage. Frenchmen, it is well known, true to their Médocs and their Burgundies, do not drink, and even dislike, the finest German wines, and the Germans have an equal preference for their own Rhenish vintages; whilst it may in truth be said, that everywhere preference is shown by communities for the fruits of their own labour,—the drinks that spring from their native soil. In England, before the revolution of 1688, none but French wines were in favour; and notwithstanding the introduction of the growths of Portugal were fostered by special treaty and exceptional fiscal dues charged on the vintages of France, it required more than a century, and all the existing national enmity against everything French or their belongings, before Port wine supplanted the Clarets; and the vintages of Spain and Portugal, once naturalized, predominated in England for many successive

generations. Prejudice in this, doubtless, has much to answer for, as there are many who know a wine only by its label. But prejudice is too much like dust; no ingenuity is sufficient to entirely keep it out.

Wines differ considerably in their power of endurance, and the time requisite for their full perfection. Some will keep well for a very lengthened period, but any excess of age is always at the expense of some of their fragrance and vinous properties. Mere age in wine, however, is by no means a proof of goodness or quality, though a certain time in bottle is essential for developing its flavour and character, and rendering it more suitable for table use. That "many a true word is spoken in jest" has long been proverbial, and "the Lord of Misrule" himself might acquire reputation for sense as well as wit, did his merry sayings often convey a truism sound as that comprised in the following words of gentle rebuke:—

"First and foremost then, gentlefolks, learn from my song,
Not to lock up your wine or malt-liquor too long,
Though Port should have age,
Yet I don't think it sage
To entomb it, as some of your connoisseurs do,
Till it's losing in flavour, and body, and hue.
I question if keeping it does it much good,
After ten years in bottle and three in the wood."—*Ingoldsby Legends*.

There is always an eligible middle term, equally removed from the extremes of maturity and decay, in which the finer kinds should be drunk, and liqueur wines, as Port and Sherry, are apt to undergo in time a considerable change in colour and flavour. Effervescing wines usually retain their quality only to a limited period: most French wines are also affected by time, and lose much of their original character. Clarets are thought to drink best when about ten years old. Second-rate French wines are sometimes passed off for the best, and the approximation is sometimes so close, that instances do occur when an experienced native only can recognise the difference. For Spanish wines a good age is needed to bring out their latent qualities, reduce their ardency, and secure the mellowness so grateful to the palate. In all good wine tartar precipitates itself in the form

of small crystals ; it communicates no bad taste nor renders it cloudy, but helps instead to sustain it in good condition. In dealing with all new wines, it is essential to consider whether they will keep or depreciate, and to what variations the flavour may be liable. Without these and similar innate properties, much disappointment and loss may ensue ; for some that appear good and bright when tasted might not retain their distinctive qualities a year, whilst others that at first seem by no means promising may prove in the end excellent. Neither can the enduring aroma of the choicest growths be imparted at will, because their delicacy is not to be counterfeited.

In the selection of wines for the table there is ample room for the exercise of cultivated taste and judgment, as social enjoyment may be greatly heightened by a considerate attention to the varying circumstances under which they are taken. Instinct teaches most men that something light and acidulous is good with fish and other gelatinous things, as well as with what is fat or high-flavoured, though not suitable with sweets or ripe fruit. We read in the *Physiologie du Goût* that “animals feed, man eats ; but the man of taste alone knows how to eat,”—an epigrammatic dogma which has been paraphrased as regards beverage into “animals drink, man drinks ; but the man of taste alone knows how and what to drink ;” and in concurrence with other sage maxims inculcated by its intelligent author, it can be commended as a safe rule to take white wine with white meats, and red with brown. With wines as with meats the serving of the most delicate first will tend to diminish consumption, with augmented comfort perhaps to all present. After soup, a glass of Sherry or St. Elie is advisable ; with fish, white Kephisia, Chablis, Sauterne, or St. Elie, as may be preferred. Between the courses, red Kephisia or Claret ; and with the dessert, old Noussa, Santorin, or Burgundy ; or for white vintages, a glass of St. Elie or Montilla Sherry : with dried fruits or nuts, a glass of Cyprus or Vinsanto might be more acceptable. A table of rich and alcoholic wines will indicate the degree of prudence to be exercised in their use ; but it is best to keep mainly to one sort, and that, maybe, of the lightest. When Champagne is introduced, it

should be put forward early,—say soon after the removal of the fish,—as well to enliven the guests, as to heighten its enjoyment before the nicer sensibilities of the palate are weakened, for no wines promote cheerfulness so effectually as the sparkling and effervescent kinds. After cheese, a glass of generous Burgundy or old Port will impart a grateful relish; but with an oyster luncheon, nothing can equal the delicate pale varieties of Greece and Hungary.

Liqueur white wines, such as Madeira or Sherry, might be decanted a few hours before dinner; Port may be brought into a warm room at the same time, but should not be drawn long before use. Pure or unbranded vintages must remain unopened till called for. In warm weather liqueur wines are too heating, and should be indulged in sparingly; nor would it be amiss to keep in mind that costly wines are not necessarily the most beneficial, and that many sound and wholesome growths are within our reach at a very moderate expenditure. A tumbler of light Médoc, diluted with water, is far more invigorating for breakfast than warm tea or coffee, especially after smart morning exercise. When the strength of wine or other liquor is intended to be lowered by the addition of water, the latter should be the first poured into the glass, and the wine immediately afterwards. Most of the fixed air contained in the liquor will be fully absorbed by the water, and the mixture escape that flat or mawkish flavour often recognised if the wine is first placed in the empty glass, by which the aroma is diffused, and a large portion of the more delicate properties are lost.

But little advantage will attend the acquisition of the best wine, if due care be not taken to preserve and bring it to that maturity and perfection which it can alone derive from time. Wines appear to be mellowed in two ways,—either by the disengagement of a portion of their aqueous particles, and such innate ingredients as obscure the delicacy of their flavour and aroma, or by the more intimate union and concentration of the remaining component parts. All the stronger kinds, particularly such as have been fermented in the vat, yield a large sediment in the wood, and it is only when all the mucilagi-

nous matter, with a large portion of their tartar, has been deposited, that they become fit for bottling. After they are laid down, the precipitation of the tartar continues in a slight degree, and, in the red wines, generally carries along with it a portion of the colouring matter, forming a dark crust on that side of the bottle which happens to be undermost. Certain vintages, however, are less apt to form this crust than some others; in Port wines it is always present, but in those of Médoc it is scarcely perceptible,—at least when properly matured and fined before bottling, and their colour acquires a deeper tinge as the deposition of tartar proceeds. In white varieties, on the other hand, the tartar is eliminated in the form of pellucid crystals adhering to the cork and side of the bottle, consisting generally of pure supertartrate of potash, but sometimes containing other saline substances which may have been in combination with it.

“Now tartar,” remarks sir Charles Barry in his treatise *On Wines*, “is the real essential salt of wine, which all new wines contain, but in a very different proportion to the other vinous principles, in which it long remains latent, until, by becoming more attenuated and disengaged, it is successively separated from the very centre of the wine, and equally impelled to the circumferences of the cask in which it is kept. This is a real crystallization of these natural salts of wine, and, similar to other operations of the same character, is never formed but when the liquor is kept in a state of rest. A much greater quantity of it is separated from the strong and rough wines than from the rich sweet wines, in which the fine oily and spirituous parts prevail more than the saline. The crystals of tartar which are thence formed are likewise found to be not only a safe, but a useful aperient and attenuating medicine in many cases, and much more apt to dissolve calculous accretions than to form them.”

Wines of strength intended to mellow in the wood, should be put into the largest barrels that can be conveniently procured, for rough vintages ripen best in a large body; but those of a delicate and lighter growth are more advantageously stored in smaller vessels, and should be bottled as soon as they attain a suitable condition, for this class gains little by long continuance in the cask. The preservation and amelioration of wine in bottle mainly depend upon the maturity it has acquired in the wood, and its freedom from all mucilaginous impurities.

On the first fermentation the primary constituents are partially decomposed and converted into alcohol; it is only during the second or insensible fermentation that new combinations arise, and generate a specific bouquet and flavour. All wines may thus be regarded as bearing within themselves the germs of degeneration, whilst with equal truth it might be affirmed that they are endued with certain powers of improvement and endurance. With respect to the time requisite to bring them to their full maturity, wines are said to follow the same law as that observed in organized beings; viz. that their duration is proportionate with the time needed for their complete developement. When wines cease to deposit, they cease to improve and begin to deteriorate. Such as attain their highest perfection at the end of two years, go off at five or six; while those requiring ten or twelve years to fully mature, will keep thirty or forty years, or even more. White wines, for the most part, are ripe for bottling earlier than red. The Rhine wines may remain in cask for many years. First-rank Burgundies should be bottled one year after the vintage; while the higher-coloured and more generous sorts are better if retained in the wood four or five years. Bordeaux will mellow in bulk for ten years. The light sorts of French wines are seldom good when more than four or five years old. Madeira, Malaga, and other firm strong wines, when well made, may endure long,—perhaps 50 or 60 years; but Port wine, even when well fermented from good grapes, can seldom or never, without the addition of a considerable portion of brandy, be preserved in perfection many years; for it requires a long time to subdue and mingle so ardent a spirit into the body of the wine so as to conceal its fiery potency, and even then its deleterious qualities remain.

Most wines not bottled when fully ripe, and in proper time to preserve them, decline in quality, and soon lose their distinctive properties. The precipitation of wine in bottle is only a continuance of that which commenced in the cask, and those which deposit most freely are observed to be the most durable. In their final stage of preservation they all form some deposit, varying from coarse crust to an almost invisible

sediment. Bottled wines, even when well corked, are subject to the action of external causes, and every precaution should be taken to prevent the access of air by means of the cork; if sealed, let the glass be included in the coating of wax. When laid down, they should be placed in a perfectly horizontal position, so that the liquid may always be in contact with the cork. Wine that is pricked, or has a flat, dead taste, indicates that the external air has obtained access,—by the cork if in bottle, by a loose or imperfect bung if in cask.

“And if the cask remains unsound, or sour,
 However rich may be the wine you pour,
 ’Twill take the vessel’s taste and lose its own,
 And all you drink were better let alone.”—HORACE, *Epist.*

It is also a well understood maxim, that the wines stored in magnums preserve a much better quality than those kept in smaller bottles. Much care is requisite in the choice of all wine bottles, for if ill made, or otherwise imperfect, they ensure neither quality nor preservation.

In the nature of the finer class of wines there is something exceedingly sensitive. Thunder, the rolling of heavy bodies over the cellar, and some things scarcely credible, are found to occasion the renewal of fermentation. The fortified wines of Portugal, however, are so hardy, that even the vaults under the streets of the metropolis will scarcely affect their quality; but those of Bordeaux, Champagne, and the Rhône should be placed in store where no motion or vibration of the ground can affect them. As wines are wonderfully susceptible of all that impregnates the surrounding air, neither stale fruit, flowers, plants, nor other vegetable produce should be permitted to remain in a wine-cellar, as they are apt to impart an ill flavour, or to generate acidity. Late microscopic investigations have demonstrated, that the air in a cellar where the casks are incrustated with vegetable mould is full of spores of fungi so extremely minute, that they can be discerned only by a four-fold magnifying power. During the various cellar operations these animated germs get into the wine, and are often the cause of unexpected acidity. The bibulous propensity of a certain species of fungus for wine came under the notice of sir Joseph Banks, by a cask

of wine which had been left undisturbed in his cellar for the space of three years. At the end of that period the wine was found to have leaked from the cask, and vegetated in the form of immense fungi, which, filling the cellar, had forced the empty cask up close to the ceiling.

Care should also be taken to store wine as far as possible from sewers, and the air of courts where noxious trades are carried on. These, in wet weather, would be sure to influence the wine, and promote a tendency to acetous fermentation. Deep cool cellarage is best for the lighter vintages of France and Germany; the produce of the south ripens better in warmer situations. Cold or hot weather is equally prejudicial to the removal of most wines. At all times keep the cellar dry and clean, with an equal temperature throughout the year.

In frosty weather a bottle of wine, when fresh drawn, instead of being bright will sometimes appear turbid. As this is attributable to a sudden change of temperature much below that of the cellar, it will be rectified by being placed in a room, where there is a good fire, an hour or two before required for use, the difference between good and inferior sorts being much more perceptible after a limited contact with the atmosphere. In decanting wine, a steady hand is of great importance; for however good it may be in itself, it is always better for coming to table perfectly bright. As some kind of deposit is invariably found in the bottle, it should not be drawn closer than one glass; this natural subsidence, however, must not be taken as a sign of inferiority or impurity, nor need the small surplus be regarded as waste, for an ullage bottle may be made to serve many useful purposes in domestic economy. Strainers are very objectionable; they frequently impart a mouldy taint.

In the use of wine, whatever may be regarded as the quantity proper for daily consumption, its value as a medicine should not be overlooked, for in many complaints it is often of more service than any thing doctors can prescribe. In fevers of the typhoid class, in weakness or debility, and any prostration or deficiency of the vital energies, there is nothing equal to the restorative powers derivable from a discreet administration of sound and

pure wine. It fortifies the system against the insidious attacks of intermittent and malignant fevers; it allays nervous excitability, and alleviates the infirmities attendant on old age,—principles, indeed, long recognised and established in the maxims of hoary antiquity.

“There are two liquids,” says Pliny, “that are peculiarly grateful to the human body—wine within, and oil without. Both of them are the product of trees, and most excellent in their respective kinds. . . . By the use of wine the human vigour, blood, and complexion are improved. It is wine that makes up for all the difference between the middle or temperate zone, and those which lie on either side of it; the juice of the vine conferring as much strength and robustness upon the inhabitants of our part of the earth, as the rigorousness of the climate does upon the people there. Wine, in a word, refreshes the stomach, sharpens the appetite, takes off the keen edge of sorrows and anxieties, warms the body, acts beneficially as a diuretic, and invites sleep. . . . Wines that are rich and dark are not so beneficial to the stomach, but they are more feeding to the body. Light rough wines are not so nourishing, but are more wholesome to the stomach and pass off more speedily, though for that reason they are all the more liable to fly to the head. When drinking wine, it is a very advisable plan to take a draught of water now and then, and to take one long draught of it at the last,—cold water taken internally having the effect of promptly dispelling ebriety. . . . Persons whose wish it is to make flesh, or to keep the bowels relaxed, will do well to drink while taking their food. Those, on the other hand, who wish to reduce themselves, or becoming too relaxed, should abstain from drinking while taking their meals, and drink but very little when they have done eating.”—*Nat. Hist.*, b. xxiii.

Hippocrates, indeed, that prince of physicians, often commends the employment of wine with a freedom and boldness that many of his modern disciples are afraid to follow: his dietetic regimen and vinous potions were the chief aids on which he relied when his purpose was either to restrain or raise the momentum of the blood, and its great utility has been established from a very early period by medical writers in all ages. The experience of more recent times tends to confirm the wisdom of the Grecian sage; and these pages cannot be more fittingly brought to a close than by echoing the recorded opinion of the learned and illustrious Professor von Liebig, who writes—

“Alcohol stands high as a respiratory material. Its use enables us to dispense with the starch and sugar in our food, and is irreconcilable with that of fat. Spirits, by their action on the nerves, enable a man to make up the passing deficient power at the expense of his body. Wine as a restorative,—as a means of refreshment where the powers of life are exhausted,—of giving animation and energy where man has to struggle with days of trial and sorrow,—as a means of correction and compensation where misproportion occurs in nutrition,—and as a protection against transient organic disturbance, wine is surpassed by no product of nature or of art.”

We have further seen, that the use of wine as a beverage dates from the remotest antiquity, and has resolved itself into a primary necessary of life. Bread and wine, indeed, have been associated together even from the creation of the world. Medicine and science have rendered homage to the beneficent properties of the juice of the grape, which is now not only recognised and administered undiluted as a restorative for the convalescent, and a safe stimulant and reviver for the sick, but dispensed as a positive specific in some diseases; whilst its harmlessness generally, when not indulged in to excess, is undeniable. In many affections of the body, wine is of more service than any thing physicians can point to in their pharmacopœias. It enables the system to resist the exhaustive attacks of intermittent and malignant fever, and in innumerable cases its application has proved salutary and beneficial. As in early ages “oil and wine,” esteemed in those times as highly sanative, were often applied, probably mingled together, in the healing of bodily injuries; so in France, besides being employed as a medium for administering delicate medicaments, such as opium, iodine, quinine, confections, etc., red wine is often prescribed by medical practitioners as an efficacious remedy for wounds, ulcers, and other external ailments. Nor should it be supposed that such expansive views are peculiar, and taught only in the wine districts of the Continent, since a conviction of the ameliorating influences of wine, in many cases of serious disease and functional derangement, as a dietetic as well as a medicament, is extensively diffused among professional minds in our own country and elsewhere. But wine

pur et simple is the beverage they advocate, and not the heavy, spirituous, gouty compounds that for generations past have tyrannized over English taste and judgment, with ever-increasing sway. An eminent member of the London College of Physicians has aptly discussed the subject on its intrinsic merits in the columns of the *Medical Gazette*; and after demonstrating the superior hygienic properties of genuine *pure and natural* vintages, and urging on his medical brethren their freer prescription, he thus emphatically records his sense of the invaluable properties of wine, and its admirable adaptability to the various needs and maladies of mankind:—"And what a boon wine is in a house for sick and healthy; what a tonic, alterative, astringent, laxative, stimulant, sedative,—all according to the needs of the case. Nervous, consumptive, dyspeptic, and debilitated constitutions alike benefit from its appropriate use."—Dr. R. Druitt.

Considering wine, then, as one of the great gifts of Providence to man,—considering what a place it occupies among the means of his subsistence,—considering how many useful and wholesome ends it subserves in connexion with his physical temperament,—considering its utility as a competing liquor with demoralizing ardent spirits,—it will hardly be thought visionary to anticipate or unwise to promote an augmenting preference and its more extended use among the several classes of England's industrial community.

"O for a beaker full of the warm south,—
Full of the true, the blushful Hippocrene,
With beaded bubbles winking at the brim
And purple-stained mouth,—
That I might drink."—*Keats*.





APPENDIX.

“What ! would the vintners, who with dang’rous arts
Increase the juice the bounteous god imparts,
Refine on Nature’s stores, and think her reign
Too narrow for their vast designs of gain?
With one consent they make this joint reply,—
’Tis future wants our present thoughts employ.”—HORACE, *Sat.*

The Wines of Modern Commerce.

TURNING now from the consideration of the history of wine-making from the earliest times, we will proceed to inquire into the character of those vintages which, being most largely in demand in England, may be considered the chief beverages of our countrymen of the present day. If the question which we are about to discuss had been put fifteen years ago, “What wines do Englishmen drink?” the answer would have been brief: “Port and Sherry.” Other wines were scarcely heard of, and certainly little believed in, by the great mass of the people; unless, indeed, we except the produce of Champagne, which on rare occasions crowned the feast, and broke the dull monotonous reign of those Bacchanalian twins from Spain and Portugal who had so long held their undisputed gouty sway over the British realm. Up to the year 1860 it may be asserted that although Claret and Hock, Burgundy and Madeira, were names frequently heard of as being the beverages of the “upper ten thousand,” comparatively few of the middle-classes knew much about them, and what they did know formed little inducement for further inquiry. The public taste was fairly indicated by the two decanters which graced the middle-class sideboard—Port being esteemed as the standard whereby all red wines might be reckoned, as Sherry was to the mass of our countrymen the chief of the white wines of the world. Looking back over those fifteen years we may now perceive how gradually a change has come over popular opinion, and how the old habit of Port and Sherry drinking has been abandoned to the humbler classes, even as the fashionable

clothes of yesterday are to-day cast off by Madam, to be assumed with none the less vanity by her Abigail, in whose mind the charm of possession renews the ancient gloss and the faded silken glories. The taste which even great statesmen not long ago exhibited for Port is now almost as much a bygone as the men themselves. When Port fell into disrepute, Sherry increased in demand and became the national beverage, despite the peculiar characteristics of that wine of incongruous flavours and of leathern-apron fragrance. The syrupy and more potent sorts of Sherry in their turn went first out of fashion, and the cry for dry wine became general; but the dry Sherry provided was as much the product of adulteration and compounding as its more saccharine predecessors. Both the sweet and dry Sherries were found to be equally provocative of indigestion and acidity of the stomach, and so our Sherry-drinking friends hit upon the novel and ridiculous idea that wine-acidity and stomach-acidity were the same things, or rather that the former was the cause of the latter. Such was the origin of this latest and most absurd cry against acidity in wine, and the search for wine without acid has been productive of what we must consider a natural though most objectionable result; for wine without acid, as will hereinafter be shown, is like meat without salt—insipid and unwholesome. Sweet wine is the result of the incomplete fermentation of sweet grapes, and as such might occasionally produce acidity of the stomach; perfectly fermented wine, though containing its proper proportion of acids, is for that very reason unlikely to produce acidity of the stomach; but wine which is neither sweet nor possessed of natural acid, is a worthless fluid robbed of its vitality by the use of plaster and lime, and deprived of the very qualities which alone make wine of value to the human constitution. The reasons for this assertion will be stated presently. Let us now for a moment retrace our steps to the point at which we said a change began to be wrought in the taste of Englishmen as regards wine.

In 1860 Mr. Gladstone, in deference doubtless to the representations and arguments of reformers like the late Baron Forrester and Mr. Oliveira, supported by the dictates of common sense, succeeded in lowering the wine duties; and the result was soon seen in the largely increased importations of the natural wines of France, Hungary, Greece, Australia, &c., which, being below the standard of 26 per cent. of proof spirit, were admitted at the new and lower rate of 1s. per gallon duty—all of greater strength than these paying 2s. 6d. per gallon. The supply created a demand which had never previously existed; but it was some time before the prejudice of John Bull, backed up by his Port and Sherry experience, yielded before the purer beverages which were then

within his reach. All sorts of rumours were set on foot to prevent improvement; but facts were becoming too strong even for the wine monopoly. Although the Claret which at first found its way across the Channel was not so good as it might have been, yet it soon attracted customers, especially among those who had previously made acquaintance with French wines. We were told that Burgundy good for anything would not travel; yet Burgundy came, and made good its claim by proving its superiority as a beverage to Port—which, by the way, like its old ally Sherry, was always said to require large quantities of added spirit to fortify it against *mal-de-mer*. As for the outlandish wines of Hungary and Greece, they were as strange to the English taste as their names were to the public ear. Anathema! The cry rose against them; yet John Bull's curiosity overcame his natural antipathy to new-fangled notions, and he tasted. The verdict was a dubious one, for the new wines were compared by him, not with wines, but with the liqueurs, Port and Sherry; and by comparison with them, they seemed weak, poor, and acid. "They may serve very well in warm weather," exclaimed one of the British *cognoscenti*; "but in this climate, which is damp and cold eight months in the year, and variable and uncertain during the remaining four, we want generous and full-bodied, not thin and poor, drinks." Such was the first impression upon the British palate, so long depraved by spirit-drinking. But a brief acquaintance with the new importations taught most persons that the Greek wines were, in fact, the most generous pure wines which the world can supply. The wine which passed over the palate without the burning sensation of "fire-water," and left it clean and free to enjoy food, supplied a different kind of stimulant to the constitution to that derived from alcohol; whilst the ænanthic ethers which give off their odours from the glass, and add a new zest to the British dinner-table, were found to be exhilarating and rapidly-evanescent stimulants, instead of being depressing and long-lasting in their effects like alcohol. Wherever, therefore, was found a cultivated taste, or one possessing sufficient self-assertion to form an independent and unprejudiced judgment, that taste was most surely adverse to adulteration, and in favour of pure and unmixed wines. An amazing advance of public opinion took place between the years of the International Exhibitions in Paris in 1867, and Vienna 1873, as indicated by the two Reports of our British Commissioners. In the former we find Mr. Beckwith speaking doubtfully and hesitatingly of the then comparatively unknown vintages, and only pronouncing emphatically in favour of those "generous products" which alone were supposed capable of bearing transportation by

sea. In the latter Report, on the other hand, we have the outspoken utterances of unfettered intelligence and cosmopolitan liberty of judgment. Mr. Henry Vizetelly is surely the exponent of the newer and sounder principle; and the opinion of the Vienna Commission, as expressed by him, may be taken as anticipative merely of that general verdict which the British nation must ere long unanimously pronounce. His Report is not content with expressing a preference for pure wines; it is justly indignant with the Vienna juries for awarding even the smallest honours to adulterated wines. "Many of the processes," says this gentleman, "for transforming one wine into another are, no doubt, innocuous enough; still it is difficult to determine exactly where harmlessness ends and deleteriousness begins. . . . The tasting for well nigh two months of wines from nearly all the nations of the world, coupled with much special information which I was able to obtain from my associates, left upon my mind the broad impression that the sources of our wine supply are daily multiplying, that great improvements are steadily if somewhat slowly taking place. . . . If the taste for natural in opposition to fortified wine is only generally encouraged and maintained, a few years will see a considerable abandonment of this custom of adding alcohol to wine, under the false pretence of its absolute necessity to ensure the wine travelling well and continuing sound. The Portuguese Government is already alive to the disadvantage in which Portugal is placed *vis-à-vis* with France with respect to the vintaging of its ordinary wines, shown by the appointment of a Royal Commission, the members of which condemn the prevailing practice of adding spirit to wine designed for export, as thereby destroying the fresh and natural flavour. Fortified wines of this description, it should be remembered, are never by any chance consumed by the inhabitants of the country where they are produced." The Report concludes with a strong recommendation to the British Government to "reduce the existing import on wines containing no more than 26 degrees of spirit one half; or better still, to abolish it altogether, when we should have wholesome common wine as cheap as beer, and excellent table wine, such as one drinks regularly in France, at 10*s.* a bottle."

Ere the much to-be-wished-for policy above suggested shall be triumphant, it is obvious that the reasons for desiring it must not only be plainly stated, but continually kept before this nation, which has yet, it must be admitted, much to forget as respects its taste in beverages, as well as much to learn. We will proceed to the discussion of those cardinal points upon which this social revolution (which involves the question of national temperance) depends. First, then, as regards the

simple and unsophisticated product of the grape, be it remembered that the highest natural strength of the most potent Port and Sherry is less than 29 per cent. in proof spirit. According to a special Report prepared for Parliament, and which perhaps may be taken as the most conclusive authority on the question, the very best Port wine in its natural state does not contain more than 25·9 per cent. of proof spirit. Whence comes the 40 per cent. strength of the Port and Sherry consumed in England? From the grain and potato distilleries; and wine of the poorest sort as low as 14 per cent. is generally chosen for fortifying up to this strength. To speak of liquors so altered from their natural condition as wine is highly misleading, and productive of evils far-reaching and multifarious. Wine was intended to assuage the thirst of man, and it is undoubtedly the best of beverages; but wine so degraded is not entitled to its name, nor can the human stomach receive it as a beverage without serious injury. Wine is a noble name, which has been so misapplied that, at length, the very thing itself seemed in danger of being lost amidst the baseness which surrounded and well-nigh overwhelmed it. The vile mob of destructives attempted to assume an imperial title, honoured by the worthiest from time immemorial; but the usurpation cannot be of much longer continuance than the ignorance which alone enabled the wrong to prevail. Abandoning metaphor, let us plainly state that, properly, nothing but the pure fermented juice of the grape is entitled to the name of Wine, nor is any other product possessed of the same qualities. The home-made wines, so-called, produced from currants, gooseberries, rhubarb, parsnips, and what not, are perhaps among the most innocent of the wine-pretenders; but it must be remembered that they are all destitute of tartaric acid, the presence of which in proper proportion constitutes the chief value and great primary excellence of the juice of the grape; and the quantity of which naturally developed along with the spirit in the process of fermentation, is perhaps one of the best proofs of the merits of a vintage, as it certainly is the principal cause of the flavour and bouquet sought for most eagerly by the wine-taster.

The scientific theory of the value of tartaric acid in wine can best be stated after an analysis of the constituents of this very peculiar product. Tartaric acid in wine exists in two states; *i.e.* free, or combined with a base chiefly of potash. In a Wine Report of a recent *Lancet* Commission the following results are stated:—"In the Clarets, the fixed acids, all calculated as free tartaric acid, ranged from 8·82 to 11·65 grains per 1,000 grain measures of wine, the mean being 10·48; in the Burgundies, from 8·91 to 12·44, the mean being 10·39; in the Hungarian wines

from 8·47 to 10·75, the mean being 9·75; and in the Greek wines from 9·97 to 11·03, the mean being 10·50. . . . The same remark applies with still more force to the quantity of tartrate of potash present in any wine; the greater the amount, the larger, as a rule, the quantity of grapes employed in the manufacture of the wine. Taking the results thus obtained, we find that the tartrate of potash in the Clarets varied, per 1,000 grain measures, from 2·767 to 5·21, the mean being 3·625; in the Burgundies, from 2·61 to 4·04, the mean being 3·337; in the Hungarian wines, from 2·76 to, in one sample, 6·17, the mean being 3·688, or, excluding this sample, to 3·19; and in the two Greek wines, from 5·9 to 6·01. These figures disclose the unexpected result, that the Burgundies contain less tartrate of potash than the Clarets. How this anomaly is to be explained is not apparent; probably by a difference in the composition of the grape, and in part by the practice of using sugar in the manufacture of Burgundy. It will not be out of place here to add a few observations on the effects of the Acidity of Wine. It seems to us that there is a good deal of error and prejudice afloat on the subject of the acidity of wine. Acid in wine is regarded by the wine-merchant and by the consumer as something injurious, and even pernicious. We altogether deny that this view of the subject is correct. The acetic and tartaric are both very wholesome acids; and when they are consumed, as they so constantly are, in salads, and in the grapes and other fruits we eat, they are almost invariably regarded as wholesome and healthful. How comes it, then, that even a minute quantity of these, and especially of the former acid, is held to be so pernicious? We believe that in the majority of cases it is an error thus to view it, and that the acids in good sound Clarets contribute to the wholesomeness of these wines."—*A propos of the Acidity in Wines*, Dr. Druitt, in his *Report on Cheap Wines*, published by H. Renshaw, Strand, thus writes:—"Those things are called acid which redden litmus paper, or which neutralise an alkali, or which give a certain impression to the tongue known as *sour*. Acids may be inorganic or organic. Amongst the former the sulphuric, hydrochloric, nitric, and phosphoric are articles of diet or medicine; amongst the latter, the citric from lemons, tartaric from grapes, oxalic from sorrel, the acetic a product of sugar, the malic, racemic, &c., which exist in fruits, the tannic or astringent, and the lactic, in sour milk.

"Acids of the wholesome kinds above mentioned are greedily sought for by many persons, and avoided by others. The persons who seek them are usually the young, strong, active, and hearty, with free, open pores of the skin, and good appetites. Acids do to the palate and

stomach what soap and towels do to the skin; *i.e.* they strip off its coating, make it redder, more active, and ready to secrete. Hence the love for lemon-juice, vinegar, and pickles at dinner, and the charm of acids to persons in certain kinds of bad health, torpid liver, coated tongue, &c. The secretions of sore throats are alkaline, and an acid liquor wipes this off, and leaves the surface clean. The persons who avoid acids are usually the torpid, and those with red tongues, or skins locked up. In good wine the acidity is due to tartaric and volatile acids, each wholesome *per se*. If too acid, the fault may be excess *simpliciter*, or more probably defect of *body*, which should veil the acid. The only test of *quantity* of acid is the chemical one; and this shows that very first-class wines of the Rhine and Moselle contain most acid; Port and Sherry least. But it must be remembered that one-fifth or more of Port and Sherry is not wine, but spirit; and, secondly, that the makers of sham wine can put in as little as they like, or can neutralise natural acidity by chalk: hence quantity of acid is no test for quality of wine.

“*Should a man in good health be afraid of acids?*—No more than he should be afraid of cold baths and brisk exercise. Some unlucky people can't take a cold bath without rheumatism, or a breath of cold air without bronchitis, or a long walk without exhaustion, or a cucumber without the colic. But are the healthy population, therefore, to avoid all that is cool and bracing? Certainly not; and so they should use that form of diet which suits an active, perspiring skin, and hearty supplies of meat. The stomach of a young girl should not be treated like an old woman's, which can digest nothing but bread and meat and alcohol. To keep the skin rosy, fresh, and young, the diet must not be that which suits the faded, mouse-coloured, withered, torpid skin of age. The history of scurvy in the Navy should also be borne in mind, and the number of skin eruptions and blood disorders for which the combinations of potass and vegetable acid found in wine are prescribed by the physician.”

As a similar statement in respect to the medicinal value of the natural tartrates in wine made a hundred years ago by Dr. Barry, we quote the following from his well-known book *On Wines*:—“Tartar is the real *essential salt* of wine, which all recent wines contain, but in a very different proportion to the other principles of wine, in which it long remains latent, until, by being more attenuated and disengaged, it then is *successively* separated from the very *centre* of the wine, and equally directed to the *circumferences* of the cask in which it is kept. This is a real *crystallisation* of these natural salts of wine, and, similar to other operations of the same kind, is never formed but when the liquor is kept in a state of *rest*. A much greater quantity of it is separated from

the *strong acid* and *austere* wines than from the *rich* sweet wines, in which the fine *oily* and spirituous parts prevail more than the *saline*. On this account the former, while recent, retain a disagreeable austere taste, until the superfluous saline parts are thrown off, and those which are retained become more mild. The rich wines will likewise continue to be disagreeable, luscious, and heavy until the oily and spirituous parts are more *refined* and exalted, to which they entirely owe their peculiar *colour and fragrancy*. On this account the wines of this kind, which contain a greater proportion of the saline *refined tartar* than others, acquire a more grateful *pungency*, which eminently improves and distinguishes them, and on that account are called by the Italians the *dolce piccanti*. Many distempers, and particularly concretions in the joints and urinary passages, are, by some eminent writers, injudiciously imputed to this tartar in wines ; but this separation of it is a very gradual and slow process, and never can prevail but in a quiescent state, and not possibly while the wine in a quick motion circulates through the body, or in passing through any of the excretory canals. Neither are these calculous *concretions* which are formed in the joints or urinary passages of the same kind with this vinous salt ; but really of a different and opposite nature, as it evidently appears from experiments that these calculous *concretions* are of an *alkaline* nature, and this vinous tartar of a penetrative acid kind. The *crystals of tartar*, which are thence formed, are likewise found to be not only a safe, but a useful aperient and attenuating medicine in many cases, and much more apt to attenuate and dissolve such beginning concretions than to form them."

These opinions are confirmed by the late author of the work *On Foods, &c.*, EDWARD SMITH, M.D., F.R.S., in his letter to the *Times* on "the Alleged Adulteration of Sherry," who thus writes :—"The removal of the natural salts of grape-juice—viz. the tartrates and malates—by the plastering process, greatly deteriorates the wine in one of its nutritive, or, to speak more correctly, medicinal qualities, while the formation of sulphuric and acetic acids increases the evil. There are qualities in wine made simply from the juice of the grape which are not destroyed by the quantity of alcohol generated therein ; and changes proceed in such natural wine of a valuable medicinal and dietetic character much more rapidly than in adulterated Sherry or changed wine. These are well exemplified by a natural white wine of Portugal—Bucellas—and the manufactured wine of Spain—Sherry. Nothing is more desirable in this discussion than to satisfy wine consumers that while pure wine must contain alcohol, alcohol is not wine, neither is it the most important ele-

ment of wine in a dietetic sense. A sound Claret is far better for health than a sound Port, and cheap white Greek wines than dearer Sherry."

Dr. THUDICHUM, in a lecture which he delivered December 22, 1869, at the Society of Arts *On Wines: their Origin, Nature, Analysis, and Uses*, furnishes us with the following direct statements as to the effect of plastering wines:—

Plaster of Paris denounced.

"Spanish, Portuguese, and French wines of the south, are plastered; that is to say, plaster of Paris is dusted over the grapes immediately after they are gathered, or while they are on the press, or while they are in the state of must. Dr. Dupré and myself have been unable to find out the logic of that practice. If it is intended to make the wine stronger, it fails; for plaster unites with little more than one-fourth its weight of water; but the gypsum formed encloses mechanically a quantity of must, and reduces the total yield, so that 50 per cent. of plaster will retain fully half the juice, and raise the sugar in the remaining half from 13 to 15 per cent. only, and lesser quantities in proportion. But plaster will diminish the free acid of the wine, in proportion to its quantity, from 5 to 0.5 per mille. It will do more; it will decompose the tartrates and form sulphates, and thus change wines into drugs. In fact, all Sherries contain considerable quantities of sulphate of potassium, to which many varieties owe their bitter taste and their purgative action. I am quite open to instruction on the use of plastering, but have sought it in vain of some large producers or importers of Sherry. No doubt the 20 per cent. of alcohol in Sherry is a frequent cause of kidney affection, but the cause is at least doubled by the potassium salt. I vote for Sherry without plaster acid, and less than 16 per cent. of alcohol; such Sherry will require neither camomile nor nitric ether for a flavour. I vote for not changing ripe must into unripe by removing wine acid, and leaving sour apple acid. I delight in a glass of Amon-tillado, or even cheap 'Vino de Arenas;' but I gladly leave the drink of tincture of Glauber's salts to the old gentlemen who, as the phrase goes, 'cannot get anything dry enough.'"

Dr. DUPRÉ, Lecturer and Professor of Chemistry at the Westminster Hospital, in the course of the discussion which followed upon the remarks of Dr. Thudichum, at the Society of Arts above referred to, made these important observations on—

The Medicinal Properties of Wine Destroyed by the "Plastering" Process.

"Moreover, the acids in wine varied considerably. Some contained chiefly tartaric acid—in fact it was the general superstition that this was the prevailing acid of wine ; but this was by no means the case, for Port and Sherry contained scarcely any. Port being of too great alcoholic strength, the alcohol precipitated the acid in the form of tartrate ; and Sherry, because the plastering to which it was subjected removed nearly all the tartaric acid, and replaced it by sulphate of potassa, a very active saline agent which, like most salts of potassa, had a very depressing action on the heart. Now wine was very frequently given to keep up the action of the heart, which as all physiologists knew was often of extreme importance, and could be effected no way so well as by the administration of alcohol or wine ; but it might often happen, in the case of Sherry, that the slight stimulating action produced by the alcohol would be entirely counteracted by the contrary effect produced by sulphate of potassa."

From the foregoing it will be manifest that the tartaric acid in wine greatly adds to its nutritive and dietetic value ; consequently, when wine is described and sold as *without acidity*, it is deficient in one of its most valuable properties. However unwelcome the fact may be, the goodness, fine bouquet, and flavour of every wine is derived and produced by the unhappy bugbear of acidity ; that is to say, that by the oxidation of the alcohol certain ethers are developed, which are the cause of the value and bouquet of old wine ; for we all know that in judging, smelling, and tasting an old-bottled wine, we value it neither according to its alcoholic strength nor sweetness, but to its vinous flavour and bouquet. Thus we find it stated by Mr. Griffin, in his *Chemical Testing of Wines and Spirits*, that "when it is distilled the acetic ether passes over with the alcohol into the distillate, when it can be detected by its odour, but cannot be measured as to its quantity. Thus it is that, as wines grow old, these ethers are produced in them ; and to these ethers is no doubt attributable all the odour of the wines, and much of their flavour. Such is the theory of bouquet, which appears to me to be most consistent with our present knowledge of the constitution of wines. . . . Although, within certain limits, wines are powerful and good in proportion to the quantity of alcohol they contain, yet, when taken alone, the quantity of alcohol affords no indication of the value of the wine. It is *one element* of goodness, but not sufficient in itself to constitute goodness. As a decisive proof of this fact, I may refer to the wine No. 12 in Tables I. and II. This contained 50 per cent. more alcohol than Fresenius's best Steinberger ; but it was detestable

rubbish, bought of a London grocer for a shilling a bottle, and not worth a penny. Hence, predominant alcohol, considered *alone*, is no mark of goodness in a wine. . . . It has been asserted by Professor Fresenius, that the goodness of wine is so much the greater the more it contains of sugar. In this he was deceived by the circumstance that his wines contained much saccharine, because they were prepared from very ripe grapes, and had not been completely fermented. Good wines of the light sort—and those of the Rhine belong to that category—should have, and indeed usually have, either no sugar, or very little. All the sugar that occurs in the grape-juice ought to be entirely fermented into alcohol; and if this is done properly, and no injurious substances are introduced into the wine, and the wine is so well fermented as to have the alcohol in proper proportion to the acid it will be sweet enough for agreeable drink, without containing the least particle of free sugar. If sugar is practically left in wine, you may take it as a proof of incompleteness of fermentation, or that the manufacturer meant to produce a sweet wine, or that he was conscious of the presence of some improper substance or quality in the wine, which he considered it necessary to cover or hide by sweetness—*mere sweetness*, the lowest and most easily and cheaply imitated of all the qualities by which wine is characterised; consequently, the presence of abundant sugar in wine is no proof of superior goodness. These reasons show that the goodness of wine is neither caused by a small proportion of acid nor by a large proportion of sugar, and, as we have previously seen, that it is not decidedly influenced by a preponderance of alcohol. . . . The true principle which more than all others appears to regulate and govern the goodness of wines is, that *the weight of their alcohol should have a certain relation to that of their acid*. If this relation is right, other things are comparatively indifferent.”

But besides the tartaric acids or tartrates above referred to, there is another important acid in wine; namely, the tannic acid, or tannin, which is the astringent or rough principle that is extracted from the skins, pips, and stalks of the grape during the process of fermentation, and is found chiefly in red wines. Tannin not only adds greatly to the keeping properties of all wines, and is productive of flavour, but is highly important in a dietetic point of view for its tonic and strengthening effects. The medical profession has long recognised the fact, that the wines best fitted to aid a languishing digestion are those that are rich in tannin, and contain the greatest amount of alcohol—not alcohol added, but that which is produced naturally in the course of fermentation. Thus the learned chemist of Strasburg, Dr. Schelagdenhauffen states “that Peruvian bark in wine is beneficial in several forms of anæmia, &c.;

but experience has proved that not more than one-fourth of the alkaloids of the bark are dissolved, and that which the wine dissolves is the tannin. The wine most rich in natural tannin should therefore be preferred to that prepared with Peruvian bark. . . . In all these conditions a small glass of rough wine—*i.e.* containing tannin—at the end of a meal is the best cordial to animate the energy of the digestive functions, and re-establish harmony in the great organ of nutrition.”

The next important consideration is the amount of alcohol or spirit that grapes are capable of producing, and the cause that influences its quantity. Dr. Faure, in his *Analyse des Vins*, remarks that, “alcohol being the product of the decomposition of sugar during the process of fermentation, it is evident that the sweeter the grapes the more alcohol they will produce, and the resulting wine will be strong and generous. It is not only on account of the quantity of alcohol produced that ripeness of the grape is indispensable for making good wine, but because, the chief sugar being the result of the last change which takes place in the fruition, the other constituents have also been developed *pari passu*, so that in perfectly ripe grapes all the elements of good wine will be united. The contrary will occur should the season prove wet and cold, for in that case the wines will be weak, colourless, and without bouquet and flavour. Thus, then, although alcohol may be one of the most essential elements in wine, one must not suppose that *it* alone constitutes its quality, or that it is capable of producing the beneficially mental and physical effects derivable from the use of pure wine; were it so, plain diluted spirit would answer every requirement.” On the contrary, we hear from Dr. Druitt that “alcohol has plenty of sins to answer for. It produces dropsy, delirium tremens, disease of the brain, liver, and kidneys. But to produce gout, it is not alcohol *per se*, but in combination with sugar and ferment, that is needed. Of such combinations sweet ale, sweet cider, and sweet wine are well-known examples, provided their sweetness be the result of arrested fermentation. It is the interest, then, of the physician, no less than of the politician, we will not say to *discourage*, but certainly not to *encourage*, the production of imperfectly fermented liquors by giving them artificial protection in the shape of exemption from their fair share of customs or excise duty. The most popular example of an ill-made and unwholesome wine is modern Port. In fact it does not deserve the name of wine, but rather of *liqueur*, and so the French call it.”—*Medical Times and Gazette*, Oct., 1867.

From Dr. Faure's statement it will be seen that the alcoholic strength of *natural wines* depends upon the ripeness and sweetness of the grapes;

and that without perfect fermentation even the best grapes will not produce much alcohol, rarely exceeding, perhaps, 26 to 28 per cent. of proof spirit. We therefore find that, according to the various latitudes, the wines of France vary in strength from 9 per cent. to 24 per cent. of proof spirit; those of Spain and Portugal from 16 per cent. to 28 per cent.; those of Germany and Hungary from 9 per cent. to 21 per cent.; whilst those produced in Greece, aided by a favourable clime and limited area, are more uniform than those of any other country, varying but from 23 per cent. to 29 per cent. of proof spirit.

We will now, prepared as we are by the preceding data for our inquiry, proceed to examine the various wines of modern commerce, with a view to show what are their origin, characteristics, and respective merits; and we will place Port first, not for its value, but for the position which it has long held in this country.

PORT WINE.

This wine has been not only accurately described by Baron Forrester, himself a wine-grower of great repute and experience, but by still more recent authorities, such as our British consuls in their official reports from the places of manufacture. Consul Crawford has given us the following particulars respecting the process of Port wine-making: "Though at first sight primitive, it is, in all essential particulars, very cautiously and skilfully performed. The over-ripe or inferior grapes being picked out, the rest are thrown into a large stone-built vat (lagar). Into this *as many men as can easily find room enter, and tread out the juice. The men stay in from twenty to thirty hours.* The must is then allowed to stand until a thorough fermentation has taken place. It is now that a small portion of brandy is added, as is also done with Sherry and Madeira, to prevent the wine, containing, as it does, so many *rich ingredients*, from running into an excessive fermentation, and so losing too much of its *saccharine matter*."—*Commercial Report*, 1867.

Baron Forrester is even more minute in his particulars respecting the method of preparing Port wine for the British market:—"To produce *black, strong, and sweet* wine, the following are the expedients resorted to: The grapes being flung into the open stone vat indiscriminately on the stalks, sound or unsound, are trodden by men till they are completely mashed, and there left to ferment. When the wine is about half fermented, it is transferred from the vat to tonels, and brandy (several degrees above proof) is thrown in, in the proportion of twelve to twenty-four gallons to the pipe of must, by which the fermentation

is greatly checked. About two months afterwards this mixture is coloured thus: A quantity of dried elder-berries is put into coarse bags; these are placed in vats, and, a part of the wine to be coloured being thrown over them, they are trodden by men till the whole of the colouring matter is expressed, when the husks are thrown away. The dye thus formed is applied according to the fancy of the owner—from twenty-eight to fifty-six pounds of the dried elder-berry being used to the pipe of wine. Another addition of brandy, of from four to six gallons per pipe, is made to the mixture, which is then allowed to rest for about two months. At the end of this time it is, if sold (which it is tolerably sure to be after such *judicious* treatment), transferred to Oporto, where it is racked two or three times, and receives two gallons more of brandy per pipe, and it is then considered fit to be shipped to England, it being about nine months old; and, at the time of shipment, one gallon more brandy is usually added to each pipe. The wine having thus received at least twenty-six gallons of brandy per pipe, is considered by the merchant *sufficiently strong*—an opinion which the writer, at least, is not prepared to dispute.”

Strength of Natural Portuguese Wines, from Parliamentary Report, 1868.

“The averages of the alcoholic strength of the wine-growing districts of Portugal have been carefully ascertained by a technical Commission at the Agricultural Institute of Lisbon. Those averages were as follows :—

Portuguese Wines.	Gay-Lussac.	Charles Bernard.	SYKES' TABLE, adopted by the Agricultural Institute.
Braga	8	13	13·3
Coimbra	9	15	15
Aviero	12	20	20·2
Guarda	13	21·5	21·9
Braganza	14	23	23·6
Evora	14	23	23·6
Visjen	14	23	23·6
Lisboa	14	23	23·6
Portalegre	15	24	25·3
Villa Real	15	24	25·3
Faro	15	24	25·3
Castello Branco	16	25	27·1
Beja	16	25	27·1
Santarem	16	25	27·1

The Hon. Robert (now Lord) Lytton, late her Majesty's Secretary of Legation at Lisbon, on the manufacture of Port wine and the quantity of spirit added thereto, thus reports :—"I have frankly submitted to the judgment of Mr. Johnstone, of the testing department of the London Custom-house, my own estimate of the quantity of adventitious spirit admitted into the composition of Port wine, and that gentleman not only assures me that my estimate is a moderate one, but he has also had the kindness to favour me with his own, derived from long observation of the results of the application of the alcoholic test to Port wines, since that test was first adopted to the present day, as well as a thorough knowledge of all the details of the manufacture, and a comprehensive and impartial examination of all existing evidence upon the subject. I subjoin this estimate. 'I find,' says Mr. Johnstone (writing to me in reply to my questions upon this subject), 'that the strength of the spirit commonly used in Portugal varies from 45 per cent. O. P. to 50 per cent. O. P., and I assume it at its lowest, viz. 50 per cent. But the German spirit now so largely imported for fortifying purposes into wine-growing countries is often as high as 70 per cent., and rarely below 67 per cent. . . . The composition applies, in this instance, to the higher qualities of Port wine. To the half-fermented wine there is added, to check fermentation, first, twenty-five gallons of brandy, at 45 deg. ; and say, five gallons of geropiga : equal to 36·25 gallons of proof spirit. Natural wines range in strength from 9 per cent. to 28 per cent. of proof spirit ; but Ports, Sherries, and similar fortified wines are rarely if ever imported containing less than from 36 to 40 per cent. of proof spirit. The following table, showing the amount per cent. of spirit, or "fortifying liquid," which is requisite in order to raise the natural to the usually imported strength of 40 per cent. of proof spirit, will tend to prove the statement that "Ports and Sherries are liqueur-wines" :—

Natural strength.	Proof spirit per cent. required.	Natural strength.	Proof spirit per cent. required.
16·0 degrees.	40·0 gallons.	24·0 degrees.	26·7 gallons.
18·0 "	36·7 "	26·0 "	23·2 "
20·0 "	33·3 "	28·0 "	20·0 "
22·0 "	30·0 "		

It must be further remembered that 1 per cent. is added on shipment. A gentleman from Lisbon, at present employed in this city, is investigating, on behalf of the Portuguese Government, the strength of the wine now held in stock : although his Report has not yet been published, it is well known here that his experiments show the average strength to be 40 per cent., or one degree higher than I have given it.' " It will be seen that the extract from Mr. Crawford's Report confirms

Lord Lytton's statement as to the imported and made-up strength of Port wines.

"Our best customers for spirits," said *Ridley's Wine-trade Circular* in 1865, "are the Portuguese wine-growers, who have taken upwards of 1,500,000 gallons to fortify their unfermented juice. In 1864 we received from the Portuguese 3,344,871 gallons of Port wine. They took from England 1,630,304 gallons of spirits." He must be dull indeed, remarks Dr. Druitt, who does not see that, in paying high prices for Port wine, we are really buying back dearly the British spirits that were engendered on the banks of the Thames. But, since then, the Portuguese have discovered that coarser and cheaper spirits than those of British manufacture will serve to adulterate the Port wine which we in ignorance have given to the sick and delicate.

SHERRY.

One of the most recent, and probably also the most accurate, descriptions of Sherry, is that furnished by Dr. Thudichum, who had special opportunities for acquainting himself with the method of its manufacture. He says : "Sherry—that is to say, the wine grown and made at Jerez for consumption in England—is the product of two varieties of wines mainly, the *palomino* and *mantuo castellano*. Each quantity of collected grapes sufficient to yield a butt of must, previously to being trodden and pressed, is invariably dusted over with from 30lb. to 40lb. of burnt plaster of Paris (sulphate of lime). The effect of this practice, of which my inquiries among Sherry makers have not taught me the object, is to precipitate all tartaric and malic acid of the must, and substitute in their place sulphuric acid. The must, therefore, as it runs from the press, contains no bi-tartrate of potash, or so-called tartar, but sulphate of potash instead. In consequence all Sherry contains nearly the whole of the potash of the must as sulphate, amounting to from $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilogramme (about 3lb.) to 7 kilogrammes (about 14lb.) per butt of 484 litres, or 108 gallons.

"The common varieties of must are not only plastered, but also impregnated with the fumes by combustion of about five ounces of sulphur per butt, which adds about a pound of sulphuric acid to that brought in by the plaster. The plastered must as it runs from the press contains its fruit, sugar, tannin, and other ingredients in a perfectly developed condition ; and the statement of one of your correspondents that they were in an undeveloped state is scarcely intelligible. Quantitative determinations made upon many and different specimens of must at Jerez

show that its specific gravity varies between 9° and 14° of Baume's areometer, indicating from 14.6 to 24 per cent. of sugar, and that, therefore, it can by fermentation only form from 14 to 23 per cent. of proof spirit."

"The must ferments in the sheds called bodegas, there being no cellars properly so called at Jerez. In a fortnight the sugar has all fermented away, and the must is transformed into wine. This is allowed to deposit its lees during some months, and is racked in the following February and March. On this occasion some brandy is added to the wine, by which its alcoholicity rises to about 29 per cent. of proof spirit. In spring and early summer the wine (still termed 'mosto,' and so to the time of the next harvest) undergoes what is termed its first evolution, and after that is ready for further preparation. This consists in the addition of various ingredients which impart colour, sweetness, spirit, and flavour. Colour is imparted by the addition of caramel, produced by the boiling down in coppers of previously plastered grape-juice; the brown syrup is dissolved in wine and spirit, so as to form a deep brown liquid, containing from 35 to 50 per cent. of proof spirit, termed 'colour,' or 'vino de color.' Frequently caramel made from cane-sugar is used instead of that made from grapes. Some colour is made with the juice of rotten or otherwise inferior grapes. Sweetness is imparted by the addition of 'dulce'—that is, must, frequently made from grapes dried for some days in the sun, to which one-sixth of its volume of spirit, of the strength of 400° by Cartier's alcoholometer, has been added (a process by which all fermentation becomes impossible). Every 100 litres of dulce contains, therefore, 19 litres of absolute alcohol, equal to 33.78 per cent. of proof spirit. Flavour is imparted by the addition of some old selected wine, which is kept in so-called 'soleras.' Ultimately brandy is added to the mixture, to the extent of fortifying it up to 35 as the *minimum*, most frequently up to 40 or 42, and, sometimes, as your Custom-house correspondent proved, up to 50 per cent. of proof spirit. In a butt of ordinary Sherry (40 jars) there are mostly one-fifth of its volume of 'dulce' (eight jars); consequently, about one-sixth of unfermented grape-juice, and which remains unfermented. This is, therefore, opposed to the statement of one of your correspondents, that it would be impossible to find a single drop of unfermented grape-juice in Sherry. The better Sherries are made less sweet, and only the few finest varieties are left unsweetened. The 'dulce' is never plastered, and therefore its addition depresses a little the large quantity of sulphate of potash introduced by the 'color.'

"Now it must be observed, that what has been described is the pro-

cess of making 'Sherry,' and not a process of adulterating it. It may be a question whether this process leaves much room for adulteration, or whether it is not itself adulteration; in other words, whether all Sherry whatsoever is, or is not, adulterated. To help your readers towards a solution, I remind them that medical authorities have long since pronounced the brandied and plastered Sherries to be unwholesome. But the vendors of such Sherries are not troubled by the administrators of the Acts of Parliament relating to adulteration. On the other hand, bakers who mix a little alum with their flour or dough, which in the bread re-appears as sulphate of potash (the same as in Sherry) and phosphate of alumina (perfectly innocuous), are prosecuted, fined, and denounced, though their additions considered as per cent. of bread are incomparably smaller than the additions made to Sherries considered as per cent. of wine. Sherries contain from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to eight grammes of sulphuric acid as potash salt per litre, and the more the older and better they are; most 'soleras' are near the highest figure. Now if alumed bread is unwholesome, plastered Sherry must be unwholesome also, and is more so; but if plastered Sherry be left unmolested by the public health analysts, then alumed bread ought in fairness also to be left unmolested; it is simply illogical and unjust to punish the baker and let the vintner escape for essentially identical acts."

Professor John Postgate, of Queen's College, Birmingham, writes upon this question of sulphuric acid:—"My attention was drawn to the adulteration of Sherry many years ago by its effects on the system, producing dyspepsia and pain in the head. I traced these to sulphuric acid and rank spirit in the wines complained of, and analyzed by me in consequence. I exposed the adulteration in my public addresses, and pointed out the results of the use of such impure wines. The Sherry which I was called upon to examine and analyze ranged from 42s. to 72s. per dozen. It all contained free sulphuric acid and fusel oil; 100 grains of the sample of Sherry at 72s. was so surcharged with sulphuric acid that, when evaporated, the organic matter in it was charred. It was an irritant wine, producing pain in the stomach. Sherry wine is a mixture, and ought to be sold as such, so that pure wine may be known and appreciated: at present, the public taste is adulterated, and, unless the wine is very acid or rank, it fails to detect the impurity."

In further proof of the truth of the view expressed by Dr. Thudichum, the following testimony was borne in the *Times* by Dr. A. H. Hassall to the facts, as resulting from his own independent analysis. "I have subjected," says Dr. Hassall, "nineteen samples of Sherry to full quantitative chemical analysis, with the results which I will now proceed to record.

Of these nineteen samples eight were of the highest quality procurable, and their analysis was undertaken with a view to arrive at certain standards by which the other samples, purchased in the ordinary way from wine merchants, restaurant proprietors, and publicans, might be compared. The results arrived at were as follows :—

“1. That the whole of the wines, without exception, were fortified with extraneous spirit to a large extent. This spirit, doubtless, in nearly all cases, and probably in every case, is derived either from corn, beet-root, or potato, and not from the grape ; while the average amount of proof spirit furnished by the must from which Sherries are made at Xeres, according to the best authorities, is about 19 per cent., the lowest quantity found by me was 29·723, and the highest 41·294 ; the mean of all being 35·477 per cent. In fact, the quantity of spirit added falls not very short of that actually furnished by the fermentation of the grape-juice itself.

“2. That 17 of the 19 samples were decidedly plastered. The quantity of sulphate of potash found in the wines, after deducting three grains per bottle—this being the utmost amount ever met with in natural Sherry—ranged from 15·0 to 51·6 grains per bottle. These quantities give 90·0 grains as the lowest, and 309·6 grains as the highest, amount per gallon. It will be seen, therefore, that these analyses bear out the statement of Dr. Thudichum—that all the Sherries imported into this country are plastered ; that is to say, the must is dusted over with sulphate of lime ; in addition to which, it is also impregnated with the fumes of burning sulphur, whereby a still further quantity of sulphuric acid is introduced into the wine. Dr. Thudichum gives the quantity of sulphate of potash contained in Sherries as varying from 36·1 to 169·2 grains per bottle of one-sixth of a gallon. It will be seen that my highest quantity amounts to 51·6 per bottle, or 309·6 grains per gallon, equal to about three quarters of an ounce ; the quantity of sulphate of potash therefore met with in these analyses is much below the larger amount given by Dr. Thudichum—namely, nearly $2\frac{1}{4}$ ounces.

“3. That in addition to the fortifying and plastering, five of the wines contained considerable amounts of cane-sugar, the presence of which affords, of course, clear evidence of adulteration.

“4. That two of the Sherries—those denominated ‘ Hambro ’ Sherries—contained very little wine at all ; but consisted chiefly of spirit, sugar, and water, flavoured. In fact, these mixtures could hardly be said to have any claim to be regarded as wines at all. It will thus be seen that, notwithstanding that eight of the samples were of the highest quality

obtainable in this country, not one of the nineteen wines can be regarded as the pure and natural product of the grape alone."

As a matter of course, the imitations of Spanish Sherries which are imported to this country from Hamburg and other places, are even more deficient in respect to the wine they contain than the Sherries of Spain, to which the analysis applies. It is well to remember, that until very recently the general impression in this country was that the sweetness and high alcoholic strength of Sherry were owing to the more excellent soil, climate, and grape of Spain, enabling it thus to obtain its advantage over France and Germany. Added spirit is, however, as it is proved, the cause of the strength of Sherry, whether of Xeres or Hamburg. The quantity of proof spirit required by the latter to bring it up to the rates of strength at which it is imported, would surprise anyone unacquainted with the mysteries of this trade. There is reason to believe that the wine used in this process is of the very poorest in alcoholic strength. Dr. Hassall's analysis of four samples of Hamburg or Elbe Sherry, undertaken on behalf of the importers for the purpose of testing their statement that this imitation wine "consists of wine sweetened and fortified in the same manner as all, or nearly all, the Spanish Sherry met with in the English market," resulted as follows:—

No. 1 represents the natural wine, which forms the basis of Hamburg Sherry, and the three other samples the same wine in different stages of its progress towards the completed product:—

	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Specific gravity	0·9973	0·9897	0·9840	0·9884
Absolute alcohol	5·555	11·154	15·055	18·231
Proof spirit	11·282	22·652	30·575	37·025
Acetic acid	0·087	0·041	0·009	0·019
Tartaric acid	0·637	0·459	0·484	4·439
Sulphuric acid	0·022	0·023	0·022	0·026
Phosphoric acid	0·030	0·029	0·031	0·021
Total solids	1·252	1·508	1·408	6·939
Mineral matter	0·214	0·152	0·148	0·088
Alkalinity, equal to	0·052	0·026	0·023	0·033
Glucose	0·294	0·194	0·260	4·527
Cane-sugar	—	—	—	0·430
Nitrogen	0·018	0·010	0·022	0·017

The wine thus analysed must have been of a very poor kind, for it seems to have been fully fermented, there being in it but a trace of glucose. It was therefore originally what one would call a dry, and not a sweet wine. By the time it is the "complete product" in column 4, its alcoholicity has been raised to 37 per cent. of proof spirit; to

attain which it required 41 gallons of proof spirit, and, besides that, had received 4·5 per cent. of glucose or grape-sugar. From the above data, it may be accepted that Hamburg Sherry in its natural state contains 11·282 of proof spirit, and that it is so made that its commercial strength is 37·025. Taking this, the most favourable statement that can be made, of the value of the original wine, and working out the figures as follows, we find

40· $\frac{878}{1000}$ gallons of proof spirit per cent. to be added.

Proof.

100 gallons containing 11·282 per cent. of proof spirit.

40· $\frac{878}{1000}$ gallons of spirit added 40·878

140· $\frac{878}{1000}$ gallons of Hambro' contg. 52·160 per cent. of proof spirit.

As 140·878 : 100 :: 52·160 : 37·025

37·025, the strength arrived at after adding 40·878 per cent.

As respects the glucose above-mentioned, it may be well to add a few words. Dr. C. Graham, in one of his Cantor Lectures, at the Society of Arts in 1873, said, "Glucose is now made upon a very large scale by the conversion of starch into grape-sugar. . . . At one of these companies' I saw the whole process, from the beginning to the end. I found that they were using rice ground very small; it was then mashed with water containing 1 per cent. of oil of vitriol. I believe the other company uses some other form of starch; but it makes very little difference, except that potato-starch, and the cheap inferior starches of that kind, are rather liable to unpleasant oily bodies (fusel oils), and therefore they should not be used. . . . Not only, however, may grape-sugar be prepared from starch in this way, but it may also be prepared from linen, from sawdust, or from paper."

In the instance of glucose, if one may credit the following, given upon the authority of a Cologne paper, the mysteries of the Elbe are fairly reproduced upon the Rhine:—"An excursion to Neuen Ahr offers an occasion to discourse upon the abuse which has lately become so common in this part of the country, under the name of the 'Gallization' of wines. Things have come to a sorry pass indeed. Here, on the right bank of the Rhine, we may be said to live in the shadow of the vine. . . . And yet it takes but very little time to count the hotels where the native or the foreigner is regaled with a class of uncorrupted wine. . . . The reader will naturally ask, how is that possible? Here is the explanation. During the vintage, at night, and when the moon has gone down, boats glide noiselessly up and down the Rhine, like pirate vessels bent upon invading a peaceful harbour. They are freighted with a soapy substance manufactured from potatoes, which

men are pleased to call sugar ; sometimes their places are supplied by wheeled vehicles. The disagreeable stuff is thrown into the vats containing the must, waters are introduced from pumps and wells, or, in case of need, from the bosom of Father Rhine himself. When the brewage has fermented sufficiently, it is strained and laid away. The lees are subjected to the same process three four or five times over. . . . This sort of cooking and stewing is continued for a length of time, often until midwinter, producing all sorts and grades of wine for the consumption of every class and of every nation. This noble fluid, having been loaded upon the land and water carriages, the vineyards and towns are left to their fate, and the enterprising dealers are seen no more until the season comes round again."

The following extract from the *Times* of August 15, 1874, shows that the use of glucose is not simply confined to the sweetening of Hambro' Sherry, but is used for making Hock and Moselle. "The Cologne Chamber of Commerce, in its yearly report which has just been issued, complains of the adulteration, or rectification as it is called, of German wines. This, it says, assumed alarming proportions last year among nearly all the vineyard proprietors of the Moselle, and among many makers of the Palatinate. Unsugared natural wines are now scarcely to be met with in the Moselle district, and the addition of sugar goes hand in hand with liberal dilutions of water, and the usual ingredient of spirits. The mixture is formed with grape husks ; it is then styled wine. Last season 18,000 centners of common potato-sugar were despatched from Coblenz up the Moselle, and considerable quantities were sent to the Upper Rhine ; so that many cellars now contain more 1873 wine than the vineyards actually produced. Only an abundant crop can check this practice, and potato-sugar should be subjected to the same tax as grape-sugar."

By way of climax to the foregoing may be read the latest words on German wines in some admirably written articles which have appeared in the *Pall Mall Gazette* :—"Germany takes the lead in the art of wine sophistication, regularly sweetening, watering, and perfuming certain of its more or less esteemed vintages." It is still further worth noticing, that when German wines are really of guaranteed excellence and purity, their prices range in their own country from 10s. to 35s. per bottle. Of the wines of France it must be remarked, that these have acquired and are acquiring nearly all the good opinion and public support in the British markets ; while those of Spain and Portugal have been gradually but surely losing, as witness the following plain and incontrovertible figures supplied by the Board of Trade in their official returns :—

Relative Proportions of the Wines of Portugal, France, and Spain, taken for Home Consumption, 1794 to 1874.

Period.	Portugal.	France.	Spain.	Period.	Portugal.	France.	Spain.	Period.	Portugal.	France.	Spain.
1794	75·67	3·26	16·67	1845	39·91	6·58	37·93	1865	23·58	21·64	43·11
1796	69·44	0·81	26·81	1850	43·73	5·29	38·36	1866	22·62	25·71	41·49
1800	75·90	0·99	19·43	1854	34·39	8·12	38·34	1867	20·79	26·16	42·73
1805	65·55	1·88	25·44	1858	28·69	8·54	39·67	1868	18·83	29·76	40·98
1815	59·92	4·34	21·50	1859	27·82	9·58	39·60	1869	19·0	26·15	41·13
1820	51·49	3·58	20·46	1860	24·14	15·30	40·44	1870	19·5	27·9	40·12
1825	52·45	6·56	22·86	1861	25·06	20·65	37·38	1871	19·6	27·1	39·11
1830	44·60	4·79	32·35	1862	23·97	19·38	40·35	1872	19·5	28·3	41·1
1835	43·30	4·23	34·74	1863	25·00	18·37	43·29	1873	19·3	30·16	38·14
1840	40·72	5·21	38·16	1864	22·52	20·08	43·47	1874	21·0	28·13	39·9

The above figures are conclusive of the advance which has been made in favour of pure vintages.

The only drawback to the satisfaction with which all wine reformers must contemplate the above figures is derived from the knowledge that Bordeaux wine-makers are imitating the examples of Xeres and the Alto-Douro, and mixing with the natural and wholesome wines of the Medoc the coarse, heavy, and loaded liquids of the south of France. When will it be believed that Englishmen possess a palate? Of Greek and Hungarian wines the knowledge in England is but slowly developing, although they are generally better adapted than any others for the English climate. Dr. Edward Smith, F.R.S., in one of an international series of scientific works recently published, thus speaks of such wines:—"The Greek wines are as yet but little known, far less known than their merits, or the merits of Greece as a wine-growing country, deserve; for until a powerful government is established, and there is safety to person and property, the great resources of the country in this direction cannot be developed. No country, in reference to soil, elevation, sun, and climate, can excel it; and with capital and intelligence the wines may equal, if not surpass, those of Central Europe. These, like all other natural wines, have a character of their own, so that they can only in a very general manner be compared with wines in ordinary use; but all have this characteristic: viz. that when new, they more or less resemble the white and red wines of France or Portugal drank at dinner; and when ten years old in bottle, have acquired qualities which make them resemble dessert wines, and in flavour not inferior to the most delicious liqueurs. This contrast in quality in the same wine, and rapidity of maturation, are most remarkable. They are produced from grapes which abound in saccharine matter, and in all the elements of grape-juice; being perfectly fermented, they are

probably the strongest natural wines in the market, and when drunk at dinner, will allow a dilution of one third to lower them to the strength of the French and Rhine wines. Hence, whatever may be the value of wine, they possess it in the highest degree, and in point of economy cannot be surpassed. The following table shows the natural alcoholic strength of the Greek as compared with French wines:—

GREEK.					
	Proof Spirit.		Proof Spirit.		Proof Spirit.
Thera . . .	26·00	White Mont Hymet	25·14	Red Kephisia	23·03
St. Elie . . .	26·00	Como . . .	24·54	<i>Sweet.</i>	
Santorin . . .	25·92	Red Patras . . .	24·00		
White Patras . . .	25·84	Cyprus . . .	23·66	Lachryma Christi	17·13
White Kephisia . . .	25·63	Red Mont Hymet . . .	23·40	Vinsanto . . .	15·61

FRENCH.					
Hermitage . . .	22·03	St. Georges . . .	18·30	St. Estèphe }	16·00
Pouilly . . .	21·00	Chablis . . .	18·02	St. Emilion }	
Chambertin }	20·80	Sauterne . . .	17·06	Médoc }	15·70
Clos-Vougeot }		Graves . . .	16·10	Château-Lafite }	

“The new red wines are somewhat astringent, and should be drunk with water, but the white of the same age have a milder flavour, and being without acidity, may be enjoyed equally with or without dilution. Of all wines with which I am familiar, none excelled old bottled Thera in the delicacy, fulness, and lusciousness of its aroma and flavour; and being a completely fermented wine made from the fresh grape, it is worthy to be regarded as a perfect wine, and the representative of the Nectar of ancient Greece. It is scarcely possible to make a selection of these wines which, when young, would be equally appreciated by all persons; yet perhaps the White Kephisia, St. Elie, Mont Hymet, Patras, and Thera would be the most generally approved. The St. Elie develops an Amontillado character, whilst the Patras more nearly resembles Hock and the Kephisia Chablis, but with a much greater fulness of body and flavour. Of the red wines, the Noussa, Patras, and Kephisia may be mentioned, all of which resemble the unfortified Rhône or Burgundy wines, and become less astringent when they have deposited a portion of their tartar and tannin by age. These full-bodied wines, whether in wood or bottle, develop various ethers, and this is particularly observable in the St. Elie. The White Kephisia is a very fine full-bodied dry dinner wine. . . . On the whole I am of opinion, that if these wines should continue to be prepared by perfect fermentation without being fortified, and with the body and aroma which they now possess, they must occupy a very high place, perhaps the highest place, among natural unfortified wines; and if the price should be wisely

kept down, they must be admitted to universal use, to the yet further exclusion of fortified wines."

The Beneficial Effects of Pure Wine.

It is now universally admitted that the effects of pure wine upon the system are altogether of a different and far more excellent kind than the effects of any other liquid, pure or compounded; and that there is no tonic or stimulant which will bear comparison with it. It of course operates differently on different constitutions, and the quantity and quality have to be varied to suit each person's condition. For instance, old wines are not only less intoxicating from being more mature and perfect, but are generally, in consequence of their various ethers being more fully developed, more exhilarating. Brandied wines—*i.e.* those to which spirit has been added—are decidedly injurious to the constitution. The alcohol of wine, when obtained from fermentation in the natural way, is not productive of those complaints of the liver and similar diseases which arise from drinking wines where the spirit is factitious. In the use of brandied wines, the head and stomach suffer severely for the indulgence; whereas the effect of pure wine is to cheer and exhilarate the spirits, quicken the circulation; but still, when taken in excess, it will produce intoxication. Moreover, as the stimulant power of wine generally corresponds with the quantity of alcohol which enters into its composition, so this power must be greatly increased in those wines which contain a large proportion of adventitious and imperfectly combined spirit, and are thereby doubly injurious to health. The digestibility of wine, it must be remarked, is much impaired by mingling several sorts; whereas any wine taken singly is not so likely to produce unpleasant consequences. The late Dr. Adam Clarke could not have written the following panegyric on fortified wines; but it is perfectly applicable, and by no means an over-drawn statement, respecting pure wine:—"Wine in moderate quantity has a wondrous tendency to revive and invigorate the human being. Ardent spirits exhilarate, but they exhaust the strength; and every dose leaves man the worse. Unadulterated wine, on the contrary, exhilarates and invigorates; it makes him cheerful, and provides for the continuance of that cheerfulness by strengthening the muscles and bracing the nerves. This is its use. Those who continue drinking till wine inflames them, abuse this mercy of God."

Another great authority writes:—"Not water, but wine, is the natural and providential drink for adolescent and refined humanity. Wine is positive; water is negative. Water quenches the thirst as it puts out fire; wine, while satisfying a need, brings pleasure to the senses;

also with exaltation of power to every mental and physical faculty. Water is not food, but less than food ; wine is more than food. It has colour, fragrance, and body, is ethereal and spiritual. There is nothing to show that the alcohol of pure wine evaporizes at all while in the body. From all that we can learn, it remains liquid until finally decomposed in the lungs and at the surface of the skin into the vapour of water and carbonic acid gas, though possibly it may vaporize to some extent. However this may be, the greater quickness with which the one alcohol as compared with the other passes into the subtle and potent form of vapour, of itself establishes between the two another more important difference. Alcohol is alcohol, says the chemist ; but the difference between a gradual decomposition and a sudden explosion is such as renders combined and uncombined alcohol for present purposes two and not one."

The late Dr. Brinton, the talented writer *On Food and its Digestion*, thus speaks of the superiority of pure wine over all other beverages :—

"In the physiological effects of various liquids, the proportion of alcohol plays a prominent, but by no means exclusive part. Hence, though we may trace something like a gradation of activity in passing down that alcoholic scale which conducts from the strongest distilled spirit to the weakest beer, we find some differences which are specific to the three classes of spirits, wines, and beers ; as well as others which apparently depend, in great degree, on the relative proportions of the above collateral ingredients. The quantity of sugar, for instance, is evidently of importance, and, in general, greatly increases the noxious effects of the liquid in which it is largely present, acting in this respect as no mere admixture of sugar with the food would do. The æthers and the tannic acid, as well as the tartaric acid and the tartrates of wine, are also doubtless of importance, and seem to confer upon it that rich and multifarious composition by which this great medicine so far transcends all that we sometimes attempt in our pharmaceutical combinations of many drugs. Lastly, there is the clearest evidence that another quality—which, for want of a better word, we may call *naturalness*—of wine is still more influential ; and that *this character* (in the exact appreciation of which the chemist must at present be content to rank below the connoisseur, and the connoisseur in his turn below the sensations which follow a moderate dose, or the constitutional effects experienced by the habitual consumer) *is the only one which guarantees that proper combination of stimulant, tonic, and alterative effects distinctive of the action of wine.*"—P. 374.

The following are a few *essential truths*, which should be remembered when proceeding to test a sample, and to make certain

How to know Pure Wine.

First,—That pure sweet wine is of low alcoholic strength.

Second,—That all perfectly fermented wine is dry, and of high alcoholic strength (varying according to circumstances, and then rarely exceeding 26 to 28 degrees of proof spirit), and is not *sweet*, as all the sugar from the grape has been converted into alcohol.

Third,—That the addition of alcohol to wine, either before or after fermentation, destroys its character as such, renders it unwholesome, and conduces to gout and similar disorders.

Fourth,—That the greater the amount of natural alcohol produced in wine, the greater is the amount of body in it, as the other constituents of wine must have been produced *pari passu*, and have been existent in the grape, to yield the amount of alcohol; whereas added spirit does not give body.

Fifth,—That the greatest amount of natural alcohol in wine is produced in those climates in which the grape attains the greatest perfection, and consequently contains the largest amount of sugar combined with the other ordinary constituents of the fruit.

Sixth,—That as all Port, Sherry, Madeira, Marsala, Catalonian, and Roussillon, contain from 36 to 42 per cent. of spirit, they have been either checked in the fermentation by the addition of alcohol to retain the sweetness in the must; or, after the fermentation was completed, the wine must have been sweetened to bring it up to the regulation standard. Furthermore, that added spirit causes an undue deposition of the tartrates and neutral salts of wine (thereby depriving it of that life, freshness, and character which render it so valuable as a dietetic), covers defects, and enables all sorts of mixtures to be made up and sold as Port, Sherry, &c.

Seventh,—That the addition of alcohol to wine renders it of less pecuniary value, as spirit costs but about 1s. 8d. per proof gallon without the duty, which is much less than the cost of wine: it therefore follows, that if it was not for the Excise and Customs duty, *spirit* the strength of ordinary Port and Sherry could be sold for 2d. a bottle.

Eighth,—That all young natural wines, if any improvement is to be effected by age, must throw down a deposit, and thereby become *sweeter in bottle by the elimination of their tannin, tartrates, &c.* From red wine the deposit contains tannin, which uniting with the albuminous matter contained in wine, forms a crust, that year by year becomes less and less, until at length it gets so attenuated as to deserve the appropriate name of 'bee's-wing.' The deposit also takes the form of crystals, which will both adhere to the cork and fall to the bottom of the bottle

like powdered glass. All natural wines that have been any length of time in bottle should therefore be decanted with care.

Particulars in Relation to the 1862 Government Wine Commission.

The official reports of the Commissioners appointed by the Board of Customs to visit the wine-producing countries of Europe minutely describe the particulars of the several samples procured by them with a view to determine, as far as practicable, what may be deemed the greatest natural strength of wine. The following presents a brief summary of the result of the testing in this country of the several samples transmitted. The total number received and examined amounted to 125 :

From France	56	From Bavaria	4
„ Spain	18	„ Switzerland	3
„ Portugal	13	„ Naples	2
„ Germany	7	„ Papal States	4
„ Hungary	11	„ Sicily	2
„ Austria	5	Total	125

Of these samples 14 represent wine containing less than 18 per cent.

„ „ 89 „ „ „	18 and less than 26 „
„ „ 22 „ „ „	26 „ „ 40 „

The strongest samples from each country contained the following percentage of spirit ; viz.

From Spain	37·5	From Naples	23·9
(or excl. the Malaga sample)	33·3	„ Austria	23·3
From Hungary	28·6	„ Germany	22·7
„ Sicily	29·9	„ Bavaria	22·0
„ Portugal	27·2	„ Papal States	20·8
„ France	27·9	„ Switzerland	18·3

The wine which gave the highest percentage of spirit was from Malaga, a product of the year 1847 after very extensive pruning of the vine, and for that reason must be regarded as an exceptional case. The next strongest pure wines, containing respectively 33·3 and 32·0 per cent. of spirit, were samples of Montilla vintage of 1840 and 1845. There was no reason to doubt their purity, and as the strength was ascertained by a double process with exactly the same result, 33·3 per cent. may be taken as the greatest quantity of spirit in any European natural wine.

The above wines were not selected with a view to represent the general production of the countries of their growth, but simply such as were known to contain, in their natural condition, the greatest quantity of spirit, the purpose of the mission being to inquire as to the highest natural strength of wines.

Analytical Particulars of the Samples obtained by Mr. Commissioner Bernard in Spain and Portugal, showing the average Strength of the Wines of each District.

WINES OF SPAIN.

Name of Wine	District	Natural Wine	Fortified for England	Name of Wine	District	Natural Wine	Fortified for England
Vino fino . . .	St. Lucar	27·0	—	Montillà . . .	Montillà	31·7	—
Sherry . . .	Xeres	27·2	—	Valencia . . .	Valencia	27·2	28·6
Amontillado . .	St. Mary's	32·3	35·7	Benicarlo . . .	Benicarlo	23·9	31·3
Val de Peñas, red . . .		27·9	—	Alicante . . .	Alicante	28·9	—
Val de Peñas, white . . .		26·7	—	Malaga . . .	Malaga	37·5	—
PORTUGAL.							
Port . . .	Evidozza	24·6	—	Port . . .	Villa Nova	25·9	35·4
Port . . .	Corvas	22·0	—	Port . . .	Douro	23·9	—
Port . . .	Alto Douro	21·4	—	Figueras . . .	Beira	20·8	—
Port . . .	Pezo	23·3	—	Figueras . . .	Beirada	22·6	—

WINES OF FRANCE.

Mr. R. A. Ogilvie.

Description of Wine	1858	1859	1860
	Proof spirit	per cent.	per cent.
Chateau Lafite . . .	16·5	17·7	14·8
St. Julien (Langoa) . .	17·7	17·7	16·0
St. Julien (Palmer) . .	17·1	17·7	16·0
St. Estèphe (supérieur) .	17·7	18·3	13·7
Médoc (paysan) . . .	17·7	18·3	14·8
Graves . . .	17·7	18·3	14·2
St. Emilion (supérieur) .	18·9	18·9	16·0
St. Emilion (bourgeois) .	16·5	15·4	16·0
Blaye (bourgeois) . . .	18·3	17·1	14·8
Blaye (paysan) . . .	17·1	17·1	14·8
Latour (blanche) . . .	23·9	26·5	20·8

GERMAN AND HUNGARIAN WINES.

Mr. J. W. Douglas.

SICILIAN AND ITALIAN WINES.

Mr. F. Davies.

Name of the Wine	Year of Vintage	Strength	Name of the Wine	Year of Vintage	Strength
Rüdesheimer . . .	1857	22·0	Faro wine . . .	1860	22·7
Marcobrunner . . .	"	22·0	Terre Forte . . .	1859	29·9
Sparkling Hock . . .	"	21·4	Marsala . . .	1852	30·6
Sparkling Moselle . . .	"	19·6	Lachryma Christi . .	1860	18·9
Stein Reislinger (Bava.)	"	21·4	Gallipoli . . .	"	26·5
Buda wine . . .	1852	20·2	Taranto . . .	"	23·9
Szegszárd wine . . .	1841	20·8	Genzano, red (Roman) .	1850	20·2
Menès . . .	1856	28·6	Genzano, white . . .	"	20·8
Menès . . .	1848	25·2	Genzano, do. . .	1861	17·1
Paulis . . .	1855	23·3	Marino . . .	"	17·7
Tokay . . .	1811	21·4	Montepulciano . . .	—	17·7
Luttenberger (Austria) .	1822	17·1	Vino Nobile (Tuscan) .	1861	17·7

Abstract of the average Strength of Wines of France shown at the London International Exhibition of 1862, and afterwards analysed by I. B. Keene.

SEAT OF GROWTH	Colour	Proof Spirit per cent.			No. of Samples tested	Average Strength per Gay-Lussac
		Greatest Strength	Least Strength	Average		
Département d'Allier	red	19·6	18·9	19·2	2	11·0
„ Var	„	23·9	19·6	22·1	8	12·4
„ do.	white	23·9	18·9	21·6	3	12·4
„ l'Aude	red	—	—	25·9	1	14·9
„ Gard	„	33·3	19·6	26·8	5	15·4
„ do.	white	29·9	24·6	27·9	4	16·0
„ Loire Inférieure	„	19·6	18·9	19·2	2	11·0
„ Bas Rhin	„	19·6	16·5	17·9	4	10·3
„ Haut Rhin	„	21·4	18·9	19·8	5	11·4
„ Tarn et Garonne	red	25·2	17·1	20·8	11	12·0
„ do. do.	white	—	—	26·5	1	15·2
„ Loiret	red	19·6	15·4	17·7	11	10·2
„ Vienne	„	—	—	20·2	1	11·6
„ Indre et Loire	„	23·3	17·1	19·7	12	11·4
„ do. do.	white	22·7	18·3	20·5	2	11·8
„ Dordogne	red	23·3	17·1	20·3	10	11·7
„ do.	white	27·2	14·8	22·6	11	13·0
„ Indre	red	20·2	16·5	18·0	6	10·4
„ Tarn	„	26·5	18·9	23·7	3	13·6
„ do.	white	—	—	17·1	1	9·8
„ Moselle	red	—	—	18·9	1	10·9
„ Haute Garonne	„	—	—	22·0	1	12·6
„ Lot	„	23·9	17·7	20·8	2	12·0
„ Maine et Loire	white	22·7	16·0	18·2	3	10·5
„ Sarthe	„	—	—	17·1	1	9·8
„ Puy de Dôme	red	25·9	19·6	22·7	2	13·1
„ Vaucluse	„	27·9	24·6	26·4	4	15·2
„ Ardèche (St. Peray) . . .	white	—	—	27·2	1	16·4
„ Drôme	red	25·9	12·0	21·6	6	12·5
„ do.	white	25·9	14·2	21·1	3	12·2
„ Hérault	red	34·0	17·7	23·6	5	13·6
„ do.	white	35·4	20·8	25·6	5	14·8
„ Beaujolais	red	23·3	18·3	21·0	12	12·1
„ Cher	„	20·8	17·1	19·3	4	11·1
„ Loire et Cher	„	21·4	14·8	17·6	7	10·1
„ do. do.	white	24·6	15·4	20·1	5	11·6
„ Jura	„	27·9	22·7	25·3	2	14·6
„ Gironde	red	23·3	14·8	19·5	45	11·2
„ do.	white	27·2	17·1	22·8	11	13·1
„ Isère	„	—	—	21·4	1	12·4
„ Saône et Loire	red	22·7	17·7	20·7	26	11·9
„ do. do.	white	23·9	18·9	21·9	12	12·6
„ Yonne	red	22·0	14·8	18·7	27	10·8
„ do.	white	22·0	18·3	20·5	4	11·8
„ Corsica	red	27·9	20·8	24·9	3	14·4
„ do.	white	—	—	32·6	1	18·8
„ Algérie	red	27·2	17·1	22·1	11	12·7
„ do.	white	45·2	19·6	26·8	15	15·4

Abstract of the Strength of French and Hungarian Wines shown at the London International Exhibition of 1862, and analysed by I. B. Keene.

WINES OF FRANCE.

Wine	District	Vintage	Colour	Strength
Vin de Tokaj	Nismes	—	white	29·9
Vin Rouge	do.	1855	red	19·6
Vin Blanc	Hyère	1859	white	22·0
Vin Rouge	Roquebrune	1860	red	23·9
Vin Blanc mousseux	Saumur	—	white	22·7
Vin Rouge	Norbonne	1857	red	25·8
Vin de l'Ermitage	Tain	1833	„	25·9
do. do.	do.	1848	white	25·9
do. do.	St. Georges	1834	red	23·9
Riesling	Wolxheimer	1857	white	16·5
Vin Muscat.	Lunel-Viel	1837	„	23·3
do.	Frontignan	—	„	22·7
Alicante (vieux)	Beziers	—	„	20·8
Vin de Montplaisir	Grisolle	1847	red	20·8
Vin de Fleurie	Vivier	1858	„	22·0
St. Emilion	Libourne	1847	„	22·0
Graves Pomerol (1er crû) . .	do.	1854	„	19·6
Château Margaux	Médoc	1825	„	20·2
St. Estèphe	do.	1848	„	19·6
Pouilly	Mâcon	1846	white	23·9
Vin de Lavernette	Mâconnais	1854	red	19·6
Vin de Chablis	Chablis	1857	white	22·0
Vin Rouge	Corsica	1858	red	22·0
Corse de Tallano.	do.	1845	„	27·9
Vin Blanc	Algérie	1859	white	25·2
Vin Muscat	do.	1860	„	27·9
Vin Rouge	do.	1860	red	22·7
Vin Clair	do.	1859	„	23·3

WINES OF HUNGARY.

Tokaj	Tokaj	1858	white	25·9
do. (dry)	Molnar es Torok	1852	„	24·6
Mènes Essenz	Arad	1856	red	7·2
do. do.	do.	1856	„	27·9
Eger	Erlau	1857	„	23·9
Bakator	Ermellek	1852	white	22·0
Badatson	Balaton	1857	„	18·9
Neszmély	Neszmel	1846	„	21·4
Palank	Szegszard	1857	red	20·2
Vilagos	Arab Mountains	1837	white	16·0
Visonta	Visonta	1858	red	22·7
Meslås	Tolna Szegszard	1858	white	21·4
Buda Sashegyi	Ofner	1858	red	21·4
Schomlauer	Wien	1857	white	22·0
Ofner Rothwein	do.	1857	red	18·9
Ruster Ausbruch	do.	1857	white	23·9
Liebfrauenmilch	do.	1834	„	19·6
Ruster Muscat	do.	1834	„	17·1
Hungarian Champagne . . .	Pesten	1857	„	20·2
Vin Rouge	Battászék	1857	red	22·7

Abstract of the Average Strength of Wines of various Countries shown at the London International Exhibition of 1862, and subsequently analysed by Mr. Keene.

SEAT OF GROWTH	Colour	Proof Spirit per cent.			Average Strength per Gay-Lussac	No. of Samples tested
		Greatest Strength	Least Strength	Average		
ITALY, viz.—						
Piedmont	red	27·9	7·7	20·9	12·1	30
do.	white	43·1	13·1	24·9	14·4	29
Lombardy	red	20·8	18·9	19·9	11·5	3
do.	white	—	—	22·0	12·7	1
Naples	red	28·6	15·4	23·7	13·6	13
do.	white	40·3	12·0	25·4	14·6	13
Roman States . .	red	17·1	16·5	16·8	9·7	2
do. do.	white	52·7	18·9	29·8	17·2	6
Tuscany	red	22·0	16·5	20·4	11·8	5
do.	white	32·0	28·6	29·7	17·1	3
Sicily	red	30·6	26·5	28·5	16·4	2
do.	white	46·5	26·5	31·7	18·2	5
The ZOLLVEREIN, viz.—						
Baden	red	22·0	18·3	19·9	11·5	6
do.	white	21·4	17·7	19·3	11·1	15
Württemberg . .	red	18·3	17·1	17·6	10·1	6
do.	white	25·2	15·4	18·1	10·4	22
Rhenish Prussia .	red	—	—	20·8	12·0	1
do. do.	white	22·7	18·3	20·1	11·6	12
Bavaria	„	22·7	21·4	22·1	12·8	2
do. (Wine of Water) .	„	29·9	19·6	24·8	14·3	2
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE, viz.—						
Austria Proper . .	red	27·9	18·9	21·8	12·6	5
do. do.	white	28·6	12·0	21·0	12·1	4
Moravia	„	19·6	16·5	17·7	10·2	3
Styria	„	—	—	19·6	11·3	1
Transylvania . .	„	—	—	27·2	15·6	1
Hungary	red	27·9	7·2	20·5	11·8	11
do.	white	25·9	16·0	21·3	12·3	16
AUSTRALIA, viz.—						
New South Wales .	red	—	—	25·9	14·9	2
do. do.	white	24·6	18·9	22·7	13·0	4
Victoria	red	28·6	20·2	23·3	13·4	7
do.	white	27·9	20·2	25·6	14·7	5
Mataro, Victoria .	red	—	—	20·2	11·7	1
Frontignac, do. . .	„	—	—	22·0	12·7	1
Hermitage, do. . .	„	—	—	20·8	12·0	1
Burgundy, do. . .	„	23·9	28·6	26·7	15·3	2
Red Victoria . . .	„	—	—	28·6	16·5	1
White do.	white	—	—	25·9	14·9	1
Tokay	„	—	—	27·9	16·0	1
White Pineau . . .	„	—	—	24·6	14·1	1
Australian Sauterne .	„	—	—	20·2	11·6	1
Chasselas	„	—	—	24·6	14·1	1

A Brief Extract from Report to the Commissioners of her Majesty's Customs of the Results obtained in testing Samples of the Wines exhibited at the London International Exhibition, 1873, discriminating those which are Natural from those which have been fortified with Spirit.

HONOURABLE SIRS,—I beg to forward herewith an account of the strengths of Wines that were in the INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION of 1873. . . . It must not be assumed that the strength of all these wines indicates the amount of spirit developed naturally. I regret to say that the practice of adding distilled spirit to the wines seems to be very widely spread. . . . *It is also most noticeable that the Wines of the highest quality have no more spirit than their natural fermentation produced*; and, with slight exceptions, the coarsest of the samples were those where nature had been assisted by art.

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed) I. B. KEENE.

Table of Average Strengths of the Wines.

	FORTIFIED						NATURAL			TOTAL		
	Very much			Moderately								
	Average Strength	Highest Strength	Lowest Strength	Average Strength	Highest Strength	Lowest Strength	Average Strength	Highest Strength	Lowest Strength	Average Strength	Highest Strength	Lowest Strength
SOUTH AUSTRALIA .	33'4	40'6	30'1	27'8	30'9	26'2	24'8	31'1	20'8	28'6	40'6	20'8
29 samples White												
27 " Red												
56 Total.												
VICTORIA .	31'7	38'5	30'0	28'3	29'8	25'4	24'8	28'6	20'0	26'4	38'5	20'0
34 samples White												
30 " Red												
64 Total.												
NEW SOUTH WALES .	—	—	—	—	—	—	24'1	25'8	21'8	24'6	29'3	21'8
9 samples White												
7 " Red												
16 Total.												
FRANCE .	—	—	—	—	—	—	20'1	23'0	16'5	20'1	23'0	16'5
9 samples White												
6 " Red												
15 Total.												
ITALY .	—	—	—	28'7	29'4	28'1	22'4	25'1	21'0	'9	29'4	21'0
2 samples White												
3 " Red												
5 Total.												
SPAIN .	35'7	36'8	34'6	—	—	—	—	—	—	35'7	36'8	34'6
2 samples White.												
PORTUGAL .	36'8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	36'8	—	—
1 sample Red.												
Greece .	—	—	—	—	—	—	23'9	26'6	21'2	23'9	26'6	21'2
4 samples White												
2 " Red												
6 Total.												
AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY	—	—	—	—	—	—	22'5	26'0	17'1	22'9	26'0	18'6
13 samples White												
5 " Red												
18 Total.												
GERMANY .	—	—	—	—	—	—	23'8	25'2	22'7	23'8	25'2	22'7
2 samples White												
1 " Red.												
RUSSIA .	—	—	—	—	—	—	23'9	26'1	20'4	23'9	26'1	20'4
6 samples White												
2 Red.												

Comparative Value of French and English Degrees of Alcoholic Strength.

The apparent difference in the strength of wines as tested in England and France arises from the use of different instruments, and is the source of much inconvenience and confusion. In both countries the operation of testing or trying the strength is by distillation of a determinate quantity, and then taking the temperature and density of the distillate by thermometers and hydrometer, but here the similarity ends. The instruments differ essentially, and therefore the results are shown in different terms. In England Fahrenheit's thermometer and Sykes' hydrometer are used ; in France, the Centigrade thermometer and Gay-Lussac's hydrometer. These thermometers differ in the fact, that the range between the temperature of frozen and boiling water is divided in the latter (Centigrade) into 100 parts or degrees, and in the former into 180, one degree on the scale of Fahrenheit's being equal to $\frac{5}{9}$ ths of a degree on that of the Centigrade. Gay-Lussac's hydrometer is graduated to show 100 divisions or degrees between absolute alcohol of '796 specific gravity, at 15.5 Centigrade or 60° Fahrenheit, and pure water ; while the scale of Sykes' hydrometer starts from a definite mixture of water and pure alcohol, nearly in equal volumes, having a specific gravity of '920 at 60° Fahrenheit, and called proof spirit, and the instrument shows whether the spirit under test is of greater or less strength than such proof. In various scientific works tables are given of the equivalent degrees of these two scales, but none of them exactly correspond. The following figures are very nearly exact :—

Sykes	Gay-Lussac	Sykes	Gay-Lussac	Sykes	Gay-Lussac
1	0.5	9.5	6.5	21.5	13
2	1	11	7	23	14
3	2	13	8	24	15
4	3	15	9	25	16
4.5	3.5	16.5	9.75	26.5	17
5	4	18	10.5	28	18
6.5	5	19	11.5	30	19
8	6	20	12	32	20

The use of Réaumur's thermometer is confined principally to Germany ; the scale marks 80° between the freezing and boiling points of water.

Under the excise laws of France, wine generally is not allowed to be fortified for home consumption ; but, under certain limitations, spirit to the extent of 5 per cent. may be added to the produce of the eastern Pyrenees, the Aude, the Tarn, the Hérault, the Gard, and the Rhône. All wines for exportation may be fortified without restriction, and most vintages are so strengthened before being shipped,—Roussillon wines for Brazil to the extent of 10 per. cent ; and for England from 5 to 20 per cent.



INDEX OF WINES.

ABS

ABSINTHE, 283
Adelaide, 442
Ægean, 6
Albanian, 68, 425
Albano, 326
Aleatico, 318-332
Aleyor, 238
Alicante, 115, 235
Altenahr, 307
Ambrosia, 67, 76, 115
American, 449
 ,, Champagne, 458
Amigny, 310
Aminean, 46, 68
Amontillado, 229
Amreeta, 303
Anjou, 111, 113
Aquitaine, 122
Arad, 341
Arabian, 421
Ardèche, 286
Ariusian, 63, 66
Artimino, 318, 325
Asmannshausen, 307
Asti, 318, 327
Augusta, 331
Australian, 440
Austrian, 348

BACCHUS, wine of, 407
Badacsonyer, 334, 335
Bakator, 335, 343
Balaton, 334, 343
Baliot, 310
Bànat, 347
Barbera, 318
Barsac, 256
Bastard, 117
Bâtard, 264

CHA

Beaujolais, 267, 287
Beaumes, 288
Beaune, 243, 260, 287
Beni Carlos, 226, 234
Bergerac, 289
Berne, 311
Beziers, 282
Bianillo, 332
Biella, 327
Bithynian, 69
Blaguy, 287
Bordeaux, 245, 246, 252, 258
Bourgeuil, 289
Brauneberger, 306
Bucellas, 222
Buda, 342, 343
Burgundy, 241, 260, 261
Byblian, 69

CAHORS, 281
Calabrian, 284, 326
Californian, 455
Calliste, 394
Canary, 117, 120, 134, 361, 369, 371
Candia, 127, 378, 379
Cape, 353
Capri, 318, 320
Carbonnieux, 256, 257
Carcavellos, 223
Carigliano, 329
Carmignano, 318, 321
Cashmere, 430
Catalonian, 232
Catawba, 449, 453, 458
Cecuban, 68, 100
Cette, 292, 293
Cephalonia, 409
Chablis, 264, 287
Chacolet, 226

CHA

Chacoli, 238
 Chalonaise, 287
 Chamberry, 327
 Chambertin, 260, 261, 287
 Champagne, 272, 273, 274, 275, 276,
 277, 278, 279, 280, 287
 Château Grillé, 270
 „ Lafite, 254
 „ Latour, 254
 „ Margaux, 249, 250, 254, 288
 „ Neuf du Pape, 286
 „ Yquem, 256
 Chian, 63, 66, 67, 72, 73, 380
 Chianti, 318, 321
 Chiavenna, 310
 Chilian, 461
 Chinese, 431
 Chio Mastica, 380
 Chios, 380
 Claret, 118, 122, 123, 124, 140, 247,
 248, 249, 250, 254, 260
 Clarry, 129
 Clos Vougeot, 249, 260, 261, 262, 287
 Colares Port, 223
 Colchis, 350
 Commandery, 377
 Condrieux, 270, 286
 Constantia, 358, 359
 Corfu, 409
 Corinth, 409
 Corsican, 285
 Cos, 66, 382
 Côte d'Or, 287
 „ Rôtie, 265, 268, 269, 286
 Crete, 378, 379
 Cretan, 66
 Crimean, 349
 Cuban, 456
 Cyprus, 66, 117, 376, 377

 DALMATIAN, 348
 Deidesheimer, 307
 Dreimänner, 308

 EGER, 335, 343
 Erlauer, 335
 Etna Port, 107
 Eugénien, 46

 FALERNIAN, 61, 99, 100, 101, 318, 328
 Faro, 331
 Faustian, 68
 Figueras, 232
 Formian, 96
 French, 241

LIE

Frontignan, 104, 244, 271, 282, 286
 Fuencaral, 235

 GAILLAC, 113, 289
 Garde du Chalons, 287
 Gascony, 111, 113
 Gauran, 68, 100
 German, 294
 Giro, 329
 Grafenberg, 306
 Graves, 256, 288
 Greek, 105, 372
 Grignolino, 318, 327
 Gruenhäuser, 306
 Guienne, 259
 Guindre, 237

 HELVEOLAN, 46
 Hérault, 285
 Hermitage, 265, 266, 267
 Hindostan, 430
 Hippocras, 129, 130, 131
 Hockheimer, 306
 Hock, 306
 Hungarian, 333

 ILE, 260
 Ionian, 65, 409
 Isère, 282
 Italian, 313

 JOHANNISBERGER, 305
 Josephshofer, 307
 Joué, 289
 Jurançon, 289

 KEFFESIA, 374
 Kesseling, 307
 Königsbach, 307
 Körös, 333

 LACHRYMA CHRISTI, 328, 405
 Lagrima, 337
 Lahore, 429
 Lake Averno, 329
 La Marque, 310
 Lamporecchio, 322
 Landes, 289
 Languedoc, 285
 Lasseraz, 327
 La Tache, 287
 Lausanne, 311
 Légéan, 68
 Lesbian, 65, 66, 68, 72, 386
 Liebfrauenmilch, 307

LIS

Lisbon, 222
 Lons-le-Saulnier, 281
 Lunel, 244, 282, 286
 Lydian, 68

 MACONNAIS, 287
 Madeira, 100, 107, 361
 Magnesian, 73
 Malaga, 117, 236
 Malmsey, 115, 117, 127, 132, 332, 364,
 374, 378
 Malvasia, 117, 310, 318, 371, 378
 Malvesey, 116, 127
 Malwissy, 114
 Mamertine, 68
 Manzanilla, 235
 Maraschina, 348
 Marcobrunner, 306
 Mareotic, 70
 Maronean, 69, 88
 Marsala, 329, 331
 Mascoli, 331
 Masdeu, 107, 272
 Máslas, 339
 Massic, 69, 72
 Mataro, 232
 Médoc, 254, 256, 288
 Mendæan, 73
 Mendoza, 458, 459
 Mènes, 335, 336, 343
 Meran, 309
 Meursault, 287
 Mexican, 456
 Moissac, 113
 Montefiascone, 326
 Montepulciano, 323
 Montferrat, 327
 Mont Hymet, 374
 Montilla, 234
 Montmelian, 327
 Montrachet, 264, 287
 Moselle, 306
 Muet, 284
 Muscadine, 326
 Muscat, 286, 332
 Muscatel, 115, 117

 NASCO, 329
 Naxos, 68, 72, 384
 Nebbiola, 318
 Neckar, 308, 309
 Nectar, 66, 76, 115
 Neszmély, 343
 Neufchâtel, 310
 Nice, 327

ROS

Night wine, 405, 406
 Nomentum, 46, 68
 Noussa, 373
 Nuabrian, 69
 Nuits, 260, 287

 OFNER, 335
 Ohio, 451
 Orvieto, 326
 Osey, 114, 117

 PALESTINE, 426
 Palm-wine, 425
 Palma, 238
 Palmetian, 69
 Patras, 410
 Palus, 286, 288, 289
 Pauillac, 250, 255
 Paxarete, 234
 Peparethan, 73
 Peralta, 226, 235
 Perrières, 264
 Persian, 412
 Peruvian, 461
 Phanean, 66
 Picardan, 291
 Piquet, 283
 Poitu, 113
 Pollentia, 238
 Pomard, 260, 287
 Poncino, 325
 Pontac, 113
 Port, 187
 Portuguese, 493
 Pramnian, 67
 Preignac, 256
 Priors, 232
 Provence, 285
 Pouilly, 288
 Psythian, 68
 Pucine, 69

 RAKI, 381, 425
 Reggio, 329
 Rhaetian, 69
 Rhegian, 67
 Rhodian, 66, 384
 Richebourg, 260
 Rieslinger, 308, 309
 Riminese, 332
 Rivesaltes, 244, 271, 282
 Rochelle, 113
 Romanée Conti, 261, 262, 263, 287
 Romenay, 117, 127
 Rosenwein, 300

ROT

Rothenberger, 306
 Roussillon, 256, 271, 285
 Rudesheimer, 305
 Russian, 349
 Ruszt, 337

 SACK, 115, 120, 132, 136, 137
 Salces, 282
 Saprian, 66, 73, 78
 St. Albero, 327
 St. Elie, 405, 406
 St. Emilion, 288
 St. Estèphe, 250
 St. Georges, 260, 286
 St. Julien, 250, 255
 St. Peray, 286
 Salguener, 310
 Samian, 382
 Sam-su, 438
 Sanzovine, 322
 Santorin, 387
 Sardinian, 329
 Sartena, 285
 Saumur, 275, 289
 Sauterne, 256
 Schaff hausen, 310
 Scharzofberg, 307
 Sercial, 365
 Setine, 68, 100
 Sherry, 225, 496
 Shiraz, 416, 421
 Sicilian, 329
 Sierre, 310
 Solera, 230
 Somlauer, 335
 South African, 352
 Spanish, 224
 Spionian, 46
 Stein, 308
 Steinberg, 305
 Strumpf, 308
 Surrentine, 67
 Swiss, 296
 Syracuse, 331, 337

ZUC

Syrian, 424
 Szamorodny, 335
 Szegszàrd, 343

 TÆNIOTIC, 70
 Tarragona, 232
 Tenedos, 384
 Teneriffe, 369, 370, 371
 Tent, 117, 237
 Terre Forte, 331
 Termo, 223
 Thasian, 65, 66, 67, 68
 Thera, 394
 Tinto, 363
 Tokay, 335, 338, 339, 343
 Tuscan, 325

VAL DE PENAS, 233
 Valteline, 311
 Vaud, 311
 Verdea, 325
 Verdone, 134
 Vermuth, 129
 Vernage, 117, 127
 Vidonia, 370
 Vin d'Alicante, 115, 235
 „ d'Enfer, 310
 „ de Garde, 287
 „ Santo, 405
 Volnay, 260, 261, 287
 Vouvray, 289

WINE OF BACCHUS, 407
 „ Blood, 311
 „ Flesh, 438
 „ Night, 405, 406
 „ Tyre, 424

YQUEM, 256
 Yvorne, 310

ZANTE, 409
 Zucco, 331

all. 8
app. prof. work
2 maps. Books

7/xΔ/-

Cookery

564



